

PRINCIPLES OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Third Edition

by Herbert A. Tonne

Professor of Business Education

New York University, New York, New York

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PRINCIPLES OF BUSINESS EDUCATION, *Third Edition*

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Preface

THIS revision of *Principles of Business Education* was undertaken in order to align the treatment of principles, practices, and problems with the latest trends in education for business.

The presentation assumes the reader has had at least the introductory course in education or its equivalent in reading. The text can be used in both one- and two-semester courses. For a two-semester course, the book would be studied in detail, and supplementary reading references would be investigated as need and time permitted. A one-semester course would necessitate briefer consideration to topics regarded as less important.

The first fifteen chapters of the book deal with the place of business education in the secondary school. The remaining chapters are concerned with training for various business occupations. While major attention is given to the high school, considerable space has been allotted to post-high-school business education in recognition of its increasing importance.

Curriculum cannot be separated from methodology. Methodology is, however, of such great importance that it cannot be treated adequately in this book. The chapter devoted to teaching procedures is presented primarily as a basis for arousing discussion and to emphasize the fact that method of procedure is itself a part of the curriculum.

Consequently, testing has not been stressed in this book, as it must be treated in connection with the methodology of the special business subjects, neither has much attention been given to the planning of room layout and the equipment of business-education departments.

Specific problems and suggested readings, to be used as a basis for

discussion and for further study, have been placed at the end of each chapter as guides to the instructor and students

Several of the chapters such as the one on the junior college and those on the attitudes of business and labor toward business education, have been completely rewritten. Many other chapters have been rewritten substantially, such as the chapters on the history and present status of business education, the business program, the private business school, the collegiate school of business, on the job training and administration and supervision.

Added attention has been given to automation to the trend toward the "solids," and to the effect of the growth of postsecondary type schools in business education.

The author expresses his appreciation for the help he has received from students and faculty at schools where he has presented courses concerned with the business curriculum. Especial appreciation is due to Paul S. Lomax, Professor Emeritus of Education at New York University.

HERBERT A. TOOME

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CHAPTER I

Purposes of Business Education

BASIC TO an analysis of any field of interest is definition. The first task of this presentation, therefore, is the definition of the term *business education*. This assignment is not so easy to accomplish as it seems to be at first glance. Different people have conceived different definitions for business education. Moreover, one person may use or imply different definitions at various times to meet different objectives. It is important to be aware of these differences, and as far as possible to determine the causes for them. In this chapter, a definition of education will be given first, then an analysis of various meanings of business, and finally, after a presentation of various other forms of definitions for business education, a definition will be offered that will be used as the framework for this book.

A DEFINITION OF EDUCATION

Many definitions have been given for education. Some think of education as training in the classics. Others think of education as developing the ability to adjust to changes in life, they feel that all school training is inadequate to the real life situation. For the purposes of this book, education will be considered as the adjustment of the individual to his environment, as contrasted with physical growth, with emphasis on those phases of education that can, need to be, or should be learned in school.

Since time immemorial, young men have learned business by working with the master. The bright ones succeeded because of shrewd observation and because the operations were simple. Many more failed than was necessary. Specific on-the-job training is being developed now to meet

the need of business that has become too intricate to be learned by hit and miss methods. While chance learning is education for business in a broad sense, for the purposes of this book we are concerned only with the planned training based on a determined need for specific learning.

TRAINING VERSUS EDUCATION

There has been much ado in teaching circles about the differentiation between training and education. Certain vocational teachers are especially anxious to make this differentiation. They are aware of the tendency of the school to take upon itself all aspects of education, and for this very reason, often fail to achieve its goals. Therefore, they insist upon using the term *training* for the instruction they give to indicate that it is a form of learning highly specialized in its objective. They conceive of training as being concerned only with fitting an individual to do a specific job. Moreover, they realize that, traditionally, an identity has developed between education and the kind of learning acquired by classroom group recitation. This, they wish to avoid.

Many forms of job instruction, as well as other forms of education, can best be given on an individual basis at the bench or at the desk. Industrial training given to large groups in a traditional classroom method has generally been found futile because it is too theoretical. The industrial trainer is anxious to avoid this confusion, and therefore prefers the term *training* to the word *education*, he insists that he is a job trainer rather than a vocational educator. Too much emphasis undoubtedly has been given to formalized classroom instruction. This has resulted in a complete failure, in the past, to realize that the instruction given by the foreman in the factory or by the stenographic pool supervisor on the job is education and must be just as well planned and organized as school room work.

The office supervisor is competent as a supervisor only to the extent to which he is a competent teacher. Yet planned instruction in how to teach on the job has been almost unheard of until recently. Here is one of the greatest opportunities for business education, for it has most completely failed in this area of training. Therefore, while the concern of the job trainer with the differentiation between training and education may seem trivial to some, actually this fear that high school teachers

will try to put all job training into the strait jacket of traditional school room learning justifies this concern

Certain aspects of business education can be best learned in the class room, for example, the basic shorthand skill Other phases of vocational adjustment can be learned only on the job, for example, correspondence procedures used by a particular firm It is necessary, therefore, for the job instructor to discover the best procedures and places for learning The mere fact that many phases of job ability can be learned only at the desk does not relieve the job instructor of his responsibility to ascertain that this part of the work is well done Failure to provide for adequate on-the-job instruction in certain basic skills and for the development of those skills for which the basic training was given in school is a serious shortcoming of vocational education and business education in particular

WHAT IS BUSINESS?

With this approach to the problem of defining education, it is now necessary to give some consideration to the definition of business The term *business* is derived from the word busy, literally, a business is the state of being busy A dictionary might define business as an occupation or pursuit, one followed for profit Some writers define business as the whole economic system, rather than as a part of it They regard business as a method of economic organization that is, at present, chiefly responsible for gratifying human wants If this definition is accepted, anybody who is helping to satisfy human wants is in business The doctor, the lawyer, the candlestick maker, the teacher, the preacher, and the charity worker—all are in business

The term *business* then includes all vocational life If this is true, preparation for the professions and trades must be considered as a function of business education But since business education, as commonly understood, does not perform this function, either business teachers are not fulfilling their tasks or the definition is incorrect Business education does not encompass, for example, the training of physicians, and yet the physician helps to satisfy human wants At the present time, business education does not even have a minor place in medical schools

If it is presumed that the definition is correct, then business education will embrace not only what is generally included in business curricula but also what is included in agricultural education, in trade and indus-

trial education, and in education for the professions and for domestic life. But this is entirely too broad a field. Everyone will agree that business education can make some contribution to the training of all workers, but it cannot provide all their training. In a comprehensive interpretation of the word, the entire economic structure may be regarded as a complicated form of business enterprise, yet for practical educational purposes, the term must be given a more limited and practicable meaning.

For the purposes of specific meaningful definition, business will be defined in this book as that phase of the economic system which is devoted to the management and distribution of the products of industry and the professions, as such it is the essential integrating element in the whole economic structure.

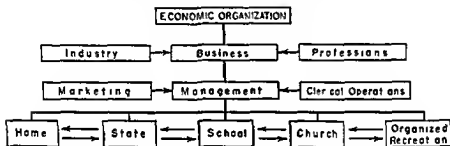


Chart 1 How Business Functions as the Integrating Element in the Economic Structure

According to Chart I, the nation's economic organization is that phase of its social life which is in large measure responsible for satisfying the wants of the population. Some of the best things in life may be obtained without recourse to the economic structure, for example, human fellowship, or certain aesthetic satisfactions such as a beautiful sunset. Most desires, however, are satisfied through economic institutions.

The work of the economic system is carried on by three subordinate institutions: industry, the professions, and business. These divisions, of course, are not independent but merge with one another, and are found in all other institutional and noninstitutional aspects of society.

Industry concerns itself with the production of the goods that people consume. The professions provide the highly technical, and often specialized services, needed by people. Business as defined here integrates the various elements of the economic system, and serves as the link between the producer of goods and services, and the consumer. In many

cases the services of the professions, for example, are provided directly to the consumer in the home. In even more cases the creation of a service is so completely unified with the consumption of that service that the two functions cannot be separated.

THE PROBLEM OF DEFINING BUSINESS EDUCATION

Vague terminology is one of the greatest problems in discussions of teaching. Some of this is inevitable, because education is concerned with human beings, and human beings are anything but specifically one thing or another. In order to clarify thinking, it is necessary to classify, but inflexible classifications will rarely work when they are tested against specific situations. This is just as true of business education as of any other phase of social life. Furthermore, progress in organizing opinions about a subject is slowed up until the terminology that is used means the same to all those concerned. It is therefore necessary to define the term *business education*.

In 1904, Herrick¹ defined business education as "that form of instruction that both directly and indirectly prepares the businessman for his calling." This definition, by calling indirect preparation for business occupations a phase of business education, makes any aspect of education a part of business education. Thus the definition is made too broad. Moreover, it puts all on-the-job training of persons engaged in business occupations beyond the pale of business education. Then, too, it speaks about the businessman. Does Herrick intend to exclude the training of women? Is a stenographer a businessman?

These criticisms are unfair in some degree, for Herrick, writing in 1904, was concerned with the prevocational training and was thinking in terms of training for boys rather than that for girls. In addition, his emphasis was upon training with considerations of promotional opportunity in the foreground. Thus, while Herrick's definition is not acceptable as an all round definition, it is unfair to criticize it, not only because such criticism shows a failure to understand the environment in which Herrick was writing, but also because it appraises the definition in terms of present-day business educational teaching problems. Herrick's defini-

¹ Cheesman A. Herrick, *The Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1904, p. 6 or

tion must be evaluated in connection with the entire presentation he makes. An attempt to evaluate a definition outside the context of the entire article or book almost inevitably places a false connotation upon its meaning. In dealing with definitions, it is, therefore, not wise to thoughtlessly use those presented by others, neither should writers thoughtlessly criticize them in terms of their own needs. Definitions must be used in terms of their purposes and in terms of their context.

In 1922, Lyon² quoted the following: "Any education which a businessman has, and which makes him a better businessman, is for him a business education, no matter whether it was obtained in the walls of a school or not." For school teaching purposes this definition is unsatisfactory, inasmuch as it would label any useful thing learned by a businessman as a form of business education. What Lyon was attempting to do in this definition was to indicate that the school can never do the entire job of training for business. In training for business, teachers must consider not only the specific training given, but also the other learnings that may take place in and out of school. When viewed in this light, Lyon's definition is pre-eminently sound.

In 1928, Lomax³ stated that "Commercial education is fundamentally a program of economic education that has to do with the acquirement, conservation, and spending of wealth." In this definition, Lomax obviously is concerned with the total problem of economic education and implies that he is not thinking of the narrower problem of specific education when he uses the word "fundamentally" in the definition. He wished to make clear that business education includes far more than clerical training. When the definition is read in the complete context of the statement, therefore, it is clear and meaningful.

According to Shields⁴:

Real business education is economic education—economic education not of the academic sort, long on theory and short on facts, but economic education which will give the student a knowledge of the basic realities of business life and relationships. The basic science of business is economics and

² Adapted from *Great Britain Special Report on Education II Part 2* pp. 327-328. Board of Education, 1902, as quoted by Leverett S. Lyon, *Education for Business*, p. 114.

³ Paul S. Lomax, *Commercial Teaching Problems*, p. 7.

⁴ H. G. Shields, "Real Business Education Is Economic Education," *Journal of Business Education*, IV (June 1930), p. 27.

without a thorough grounding and awareness of economic problems much of the material included in secondary school business courses is purely additive and essentially superficial. We cannot place technique and socio-business subjects on a dual basis since one is basic and the other supplementary. We cannot accept a two-headed definition of the field but must recognize that certain elements must be given most emphasis and these I take to be the economic factors.

This interesting explanation is obviously given as a means of emphasizing the value of economic understanding as opposed to a limited skills training program.

According to Nichols,⁵ writing in 1933

Commercial education is a type of training which while playing its part in the achievement of the general aims of education on any given level has for its primary objective the preparation of people to enter upon a business career, or having entered upon such a career to render more efficient service therein and to advance from their present levels of employment to higher levels.

Does Nichols disavow training in the consumption of the services of business as a phase of business education in this definition? Apparently so, yet a little later on he points out ⁶

There is no conflict between preparation and efficient participation in productive activities and for wise use of resulting financial rewards.

It is an obligation of business education to produce these results in the interests of the individual as a consumer of goods of business which produces what people will buy and of society as a whole whose welfare is predicated upon a proper functioning of the forces of production distribution and consumption.

When these two statements are placed next to each other, they may seem contradictory. In the complete text however, Nichols makes very clear the relationship of what might be termed *consumer education* to *vocational business education*. It would be unfair to Nichols to relate these two statements without this caution for it would result in a misrepresentation of his complete statement. Obviously Nichols does not deny Lyon's point of view, namely, that much useful learning has been

⁵ Frederick G. Nichols, *Commercial Education in the High School* p. 51

⁶ *Ibid* p. 62

acquired by the businessman in nonschool situations Nichols, however, apparently feels that such learning is so diffuse and intangible that it is unwise to label it specifically as business education

These few citations should indicate that it is necessary to be clear in whatever is being presented They should also show that no one definition can arbitrarily be presumed to be the only correct definition for all purposes Several definitions of business education, therefore, may be acceptable, depending on the purpose for which the definition is given When a definition is used, it should be read in terms of the purposes for which it is given, and it should be evaluated in terms of the clarity it gives to the presentation made If the definition clarifies a total situation, it is sound Deliberate quarreling about definitions, without regard to the purposes for which they are given, is futile, though a rather typical professorial pastime, and if such discussions divert persons from the real purpose of business education, then they are not only futile but also harmful

MAJOR GOALS OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

If general education is thought of as the adjustment of the individual to his environment, *business* education must be thought of as the adjustment of the individual to his business environment Hence, for our purposes, the definition that Nichols has indicated is fairly close to the one used in this book Business education, therefore, is a type of training which, while it helps to achieve all the aims of education at any level of learning, has for its primary objective the preparation of students for entrance upon a business career, or having entered upon such a career, to render more efficient service therein and to advance their present levels of employment to higher levels

Business education, so conceived, has two purposes (1) training in specific jobs, and (2) ability to use these skills in the environment of business The latter is often called, for want of a better name, *occupational intelligence* It is an aspect of social intelligence, or social adaptability, applied in a business occupation It does not differ in nature from the abilities required in daily life excepting in quantity and quality For example, a person needs to get along well with people in his daily life activities, whether in business or in nonbusiness activities However, those who engage in business occupations need to know and have skill

and competency at a higher level in the particular ways of getting along with business in its environment than those who are not primarily engaged in business. Thus, some educators would say that the social intelligence, or occupational intelligence, aspect of business education is a concomitant to specific ability. In many occupations where human relations competencies are more important than a specific skill, the skill may be the concomitant competency and the human relations competencies may be the more important.

Many business educators insist that business education has a second major goal: training in those phases of business that concern every member of society. This purpose of business education is nontechnical and involves (1) education of persons to be intelligent consumers of the services of business, and (2) a clear understanding of the nation's economy. The first objective concerns the student as an individual, the second, as a member of the community. Those who would indicate two major goals of business education (general business education and job training for business) could utilize Chart II. Those business educators

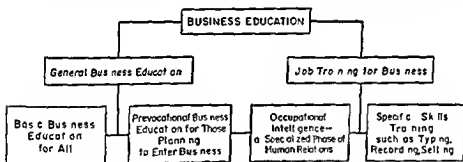


Chart II Goals of Business Education

who believe that business education has only one major goal (job training for business) are not unmindful of the values of general business education on a nonvocational level. They are just as much concerned that all members of the community have a sound knowledge of the functions of business in the entire community. They believe, however, that this phase of education usually will not be taught by business educators but in the very beginnings of school education. They believe that it should be integrated into the core curriculum program that is becoming increasingly typical in the elementary school and also in the secondary school. When general business education for nonvocational purposes

becomes a part of the general school program, in a very real sense it loses its specialized character as a form of business education and becomes a part of general education concerned with an understanding of the economics of society

It is evident that there are no sharp lines of demarkation in the various aspects of the purposes of business education. Some students will acquire considerable occupational intelligence in their general educational development. Those who are studying in courses especially concerned with the development of occupational intelligence will often be very slow in acquiring these competencies and may, indeed, be even slow in acquiring the general social intelligence required in all life situations. Many students, moreover, will acquire considerable specialized competency in business activities, such as recording, selling or typing, without ever taking specialized training. In many senses it is merely a question of quantity and quality of learning, rather than absolute learning or non-learning. For the purposes of instructional organization, however, it is necessary to segregate these various aspects of learning about business in order to set up courses.

In the final analysis, it makes little difference which point of view one takes, so long as one's definition is clear. Too often, identical words are used to define different things or the same thing is explained in a variety of ways. Lack of agreement on terminology leads to differences of opinion that are more apparent than real. Here, nontechnical business education will be regarded as a definite part of business education rather than as an indistinguishable aspect of general education.

As discussed, the major purpose of business education is to provide technical, or specific vocational, training. In a certain sense, most school subjects that are educationally justifiable are vocational. Probably nothing has more vocational value, for example, than English and arithmetic. But, since they contribute as much to other objectives of education as to vocational training, they are considered nontechnical subjects. In order to give significance to the word *vocational* it must be applied only to fields of knowledge that are primarily vocational, such as training in the use of office machines, a course that only rarely and incidentally has nonvocational value.

No distinct dividing lines exist among vocational, nonvocational, and broader than vocational courses of study, for example, certain phases of English are extremely useful to the businessman. On the other hand,

most topics under the heading of business English are likewise important for the man who is not in business

CONFUSIONS CAUSED BY THE TERM VOCATIONAL

The absence of a sharp dividing line between vocational subject matter and general education has resulted in a confusion of the two fields of interest. Similarly, a hitherto useful idea becomes confused in such statements as "Education is life" or 'Guidance is education'. If so, why use two terms? The originators of these phrases probably had different ideas in mind: they may have meant that all life is educational, and that all worth-while education has guidance value. As the term *vocational* is generally used today, it refers to education that is of value on the job or that is derived from, or related to, job activities. Almost all practical school training and a considerable amount of less pragmatic education can be placed in this classification.

Several national commissions and advisory boards have recently declared that there can be no separation between general and vocational education. For this reason, the term *vocational education* will, to some extent, be avoided in this book. The reader must realize, therefore, that what is called vocational education in other books is understood here to mean practical general education, and that this becomes job training when it is specifically vocational or has primary job value.

BUSINESS EDUCATION, COMMERCIAL EDUCATION, AND CLERICAL EDUCATION

In most discussions, business education and commercial education are considered synonymous. Business education will be the term usually used in this book. Perhaps, because in the past the narrower term *commercial education* has been used in place of the broader term *business education*, educators have declared that this phase of school training involves merely the adjustment of the individual to certain more or less subordinate occupations, such as clerical, secretarial, or bookkeeping positions, and operation of office appliances. This adjustment is part of the work of business education, but not all of it. If it were otherwise, the latter term would have to be changed to clerical education or office training, for that is all it would include.

JOB VALUES AND SOCIAL-BUSINESS VALUES

The close relationship between the two types of business education just described has often resulted in a confusion of purpose that has led to considerable disagreement among educators. Those who advocate the teaching of only technical job education regard social business educational values as nonexistent, while those who emphasize the general aspects of business education ignore technical job values. Yet neither assumption is necessarily true, and each is made largely because of a misunderstanding of the relation of vocational business to social business education.

Often, simply because subjects are in the same curriculum, nontechnical values are offered as the primary purpose for those that are distinctly of a technical nature, contrariwise, technical job values are suggested for those that do not possess even remote technical value. How did this confusion in high school business curricula arise?

ORIGINAL PURPOSES OF HIGH SCHOOL BUSINESS EDUCATION

When, during the last quarter of the nineteenth century, business education first entered the high school, its purpose was specifically vocational. Soon, however, commercial teachers began to feel the need to justify their work academically. They found cultural and disciplinary values in their subjects as readily as in the academic courses. Lately, however, psychologists have rather convincingly demonstrated that no subjects have inherent disciplinary or transfer-of-learning value, and, conversely, that all subjects may have such values if properly taught.

The great stress placed upon education for citizenship—a social science objective—soon encouraged most business educators to accept this justification of their work in place of the formerly imputed, but now outmoded, disciplinary values.

These social objectives were welcomed by business teachers because they gave commercial work a broader foundation. Because of traditional doubt about vocational training, the social objectives were frequently stressed to give business subjects a higher value in the social caste system of our schools.

CONFUSION OF PURPOSES

These diverse and often contradictory objectives tended, as already indicated, to obscure the very meaning of business education. So complete was the confusion that leaders in the field were often not aware that they had diverse meanings in mind when they spoke of business education. This state of affairs naturally led to considerable difference of opinion.

Confusion between the social sciences and business subjects developed for several reasons, one of these being the need for greater economic content in the social sciences. On the other hand, adequate training in business subjects required a broad background of social science study so as to relate them more closely to the social environment in which we live. Teachers now realize, moreover, that there is a considerable similarity between business activities and those of everyday life. It is agreed, for example, that personal letters must be more businesslike and that business letters must be more personal. For several years the "you" attitude has been stressed in business correspondence.

NEED FOR CLARIFICATION OF PURPOSES

Obviously, there is need for clarification of the purposes of business education. For example, the three major purposes of bookkeeping may be served best by different courses rather than by one composite course. First, students can be given a knowledge of bookkeeping as it applies to ordinary business services in a one semester course or as part of the junior business training course. This course probably should include not merely the maintenance of household or personal accounts but also the nontechnical interpretation of financial statements of banks and public-utility corporations that are published in the newspapers.

Second, the more technical elements of bookkeeping can be reserved for a specialized course that will undertake to train students to obtain positions as bookkeepers.

Third, bookkeeping as an aid in the management of business enterprises may be assigned to a supplementary course, or, perhaps, be delegated to the junior college or collegiate schools of business. Only a small

percentage of high school students will have an opportunity to use such interpretive ability before they reach maturity. Similar analysis could be made of the objectives of other technical subjects (with probably more agreement among educators as to their objectives than for those of bookkeeping) which have been buttressed by the social-business objective. Such analysis, however, might easily reveal some of the weaknesses in the formulated goals of many subjects as they are taught at present. At all events, analysis should clarify the extent to which the objectives of certain subjects are complementary or antithetic to one another.[†]

SUMMARY

Among the countless definitions given for education the one selected for this book is that *education* is the adjustment of the individual to his environment with emphasis on those phases of education that can and should be learned in school. The reason for this definition is made more evident in Chapters II, III, and XV. *Business* is that phase of the economic system that is devoted to the management and distribution of the products of industry and the professions. As such, it is the integrating element in the whole economic structure. *Business education*, therefore, is (1) school learning for competency in business occupations—this learning involves skill learning and the development of occupational intelligence, and (2) education to make students better consumers of the services of business and better members of the economic community. This second objective of business involves not only education toward greater business and economic literacy, but also competency and desire to put this business and economic literacy to use for the benefit of both the individual and his family as well as for the improvement of the community welfare.

Both the first objective—the vocational—and the second objective—the social or basic business—are integral aspects of business education. One cannot be achieved effectively without the other. Every adequate

[†] An unfortunate definition is that which defines business education as office education and classifies distributive education in a separate category. Most business educators maintain that there is so much in common in office and distributive education that they must both be classified as phases of business education. The continued use of this ill-advised definition is a cause for and consequence of serious confusion in administration and supervision at the Federal, state, and local levels.

program of education for business, on whatever level of learning this education is given, will therefore involve learnings in both aspects of business education. Each objective is complementary to the other, and neither is meaningful unless the learner attains competency in both. Neither aspect of business education is usually attained effectively by accidental or incidental learning in school or outside the school. While the learning must be specific, it should be thoroughly integrated with all other types of learning as will be demonstrated in later chapters.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Look up six definitions of education. Use them as bases for evaluating the explanation given in this chapter and give your own reaction.
2. What is the difference between training and education? Do you think the differentiation is meaningful?
3. Discuss in detail the definition for business given in this chapter. Suggest other possible definitions.
4. Summarize the definitions for business education given in this chapter. Look up several other definitions in recent magazine articles. If they are too limited, attempt to expand on the author's point of view.
5. What are the major goals of business education?
6. How does the misuse of the term *vocational* cause confusion in the attempt to give exact definition of business education? Give an example in the current literature of business education.
7. What do you think of the statement that the term *commercial education* is obsolescent according to *Good's Dictionary of Education*?
8. Show in more detail than is given in this chapter how the historical background of business education caused the present confusion in its objectives.
9. Sketch in detail the historical background for the transition in the objectives of business education from its origin to the present time.
10. How may this confusion be avoided in some business subject other than bookkeeping, the example in this chapter?

SELECTED READINGS

Refer to the *Business Education Index* published by Delta Pi Epsilon with the editorial help of the Gregg Publishing Division of McGraw-Hill Book Company for current articles dealing with the contents of this

chapter and those that follow. The references given here only serve as a point of departure. The *Education Index* gives references to business-education literature for the period before 1940.

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CHAPTER II

Historical Beginnings and Present Status of Business Education

INFORMAL TRAINING for business is probably as old as business itself. Formal (that is, definitely planned) training for business began much later. Evidence of legal arrangements for apprenticeship is contained in the famous code of Hammurabi, developed over four thousand years ago, which provided that a master craftsman adopt a young man and teach him his trade. Apprenticeship existed among the ancient Egyptians and Greeks. There are several references to apprenticeship in Old Testament descriptions of ancient Hebrew customs.

Apprenticeship in ancient times frequently took the form of father-and son relationship and was regulated by law. A contract, or indenture agreement, was made between the father of the prospective apprentice and a master. This indenture frequently lasted seven years. The master provided food, clothing, shelter, parental care, religious and moral instruction, general education, practical training in the standards of the craft, and most important of all, a knowledge of the "mysteries" of the trade, that is, the rule of thumb techniques. The method of learning was largely one of imitating the master.

Thus it can be seen that the apprenticeship system of training predates the Middle Ages, however, it reached its pinnacle as a method of job training during that period. It was the chief means of preparing middle class youths for a commercial career.

The system worked well in an individual or home method of produc

tion, where the master workman owned his shop and employed only a few journeymen and apprentices. Production was on a small scale. The master knew his craft thoroughly, and he himself taught the apprentices. His shop was usually in his home, and he not only made his wares but also generally sold them at retail. Formal schools for business training probably existed in some of the Hanseatic cities during the Renaissance. Their programs of instruction, however, had little influence on present-day commercial training either in the United States or in Europe.

As home production gave way to factory production, the effectiveness of the apprentice system gradually decreased. Apprentices became mere hands working for an employer at lower wages.

The apprenticeship system did not develop extensively in the United States. Although many forms of apprentice training were eliminated by the factory system, it continued in full force in certain trades in England and Central Europe until after World War I. In fact, this mode of education still prevails to some extent in parts of Central Europe. In general, however, the growth and expansion of business as a distributive service sounded the death knell for the trade of the "learned huyman," or articulated merchant, that is, a merchant who learned his trade as an apprentice.

The comparatively late development of organized business education as compared to industrial education can probably be explained by the fact that until recent years trade was simple and required few specialized techniques. The big problem was production. Once people could make commodities, selling them was a comparatively simple problem. The merchant was not so much a businessman as a shrewd gambler. The skill involved was one of careful navigation, slickness in buying off marauders, and competency in bribing government officials. Luck was the largest element in transporting the goods to the places where they could be sold. Not until after the Elizabethan Era did merchants combine in joint ventures as a means of sharing risk. Thus, while there have been apprentices in industrial occupations since ancient times, apprentices in business life developed only toward the very end of the period of apprenticeship training.

During the Middle Ages in Europe, and to a lesser extent as late as the Civil War in the United States, the emphasis was on the production of commodities and their transportation to the consuming public. Since

then we have become very successful in dealing with the problems of production and transportation, in fact, at times, too successful in terms of the consumer's willingness to buy without sales pressure. A major segment of economic enterprise is now devoted to getting the consumer to buy, that is, to sales promotion. While the modern businessman is concerned with all the functions of the merchant of the Middle Ages, he also has many added responsibilities. The businessman, as we think of him, is especially characteristic of the capitalistic system in all its many varieties. We recognize the businessman as the entrepreneur, and as such, he is the vital element in motivating economic activity in a capitalistic system.

Even in a purely socialistic economy, there would be a need for some form of business activity. The socialistic state, for example, must engage in planning, and having produced the commodities and services, must make them available to the consumer. A socialistic state may minimize sales promotion but can hardly ignore it. Thus, while the businessman is uniquely significant in the capitalistic economy, he has a significant function in the socialistic economy, although his position may be completely ignominious.

In the Middle Ages, the difference between the businessman and the industrialist was not very clear, in fact, it was almost nonexistent. The ironmonger bought crude iron or sometimes even mined it himself. He produced tools with the help of his journeymen and apprentices, and sold the tools to his customers. The maker of musical instruments obtained his own wood, made his instruments, and sold them directly to his customers. The fisherman went out for his catch and distributed it himself. Only the great merchant princes who sent their caravans to the Far East to buy spices for resale at fabulous profits (if and when they reached Europe) were businessmen in anything like the modern sense of the term. In Colonial America there were comparatively few businessmen as known today. The shoemaker made shoes, usually to order, and sold them to his customers. Even the great plantation owners of the South were as much merchants as they were agriculturists. Some of them owned their own ships, carried on their own simple manufacturing, and sold their tobacco directly in England. Even the parson who was paid in commodities and produce had to trade in order to get consumable goods.

TRAINING FOR BUSINESS IN COLONIAL TIMES

As might be expected, there are but few evidences of formal business education in the American Colonial period. Penmanship and arithmetic were taught, but this rudimentary training can hardly be considered the origin of contemporary business education. Some bookkeeping, primarily the copying of records, seems to have been taught in Latin grammar schools. It is also probable that there were a considerable number of private teachers of bookkeeping and penmanship, especially in the larger cities along the seaboard. But, for the most part, apprenticeship was the means of learning business methods.

About the time of the American Revolution the academy began to develop and soon replaced the Latin grammar school as the typical secondary school in America. The Latin grammar school had been purely preparatory for college. It gave students the means of learning Latin and, to a lesser extent, Greek and mathematics. The college itself, while it is today thought of as a liberal arts school, was then almost entirely the equivalent of a vocational school, that is, a present-day theological seminary. As other occupations recognized the need for a better cultural background, the American college broadened its scope and, concomitantly, its preparatory school—the Latin grammar school—also incorporated some new subjects into its curriculum, such as bookkeeping, navigation and surveying. These subjects were always thought of as incidental to the primary purpose of the Latin grammar school. They were usually poorly taught, and at best, were merely an attempt to adjust the Latin grammar school to the changing times. The Latin grammar school town supported and deliberately planned to meet the needs of a comparatively small part of the population—those young men who were hoping to become clergymen—was not adapted to meet the multitude of interests of the energetic, profit minded, laissez faire builders of the new republic.

BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE ACADEMY

The American academy adequately met the educational needs of the American people until the Civil War. It was a private institution, only rarely subsidized by the states, in which preparation for college was given

but not necessarily emphasized. The profit motive was often strong in the minds of the founders of these academies, but, being good businessmen, they often gave good value for the money they received. Local communities encouraged the academies, for they attracted other business, since the students had to be housed and fed. Young women were as welcome as men, especially if they could pay their bills. Academies were, therefore, an additional source of income, besides lending prestige to a local community.

The academy had to maintain the interests of its students, consequently, any subject was taught that might attract them, the curriculum being limited only by the extent of human knowledge. The abilities of students ranged from abysmal ignorance to near profundity. Naturally, such schools would teach not only Latin, Greek, Hebrew, modern languages, mathematics, natural history, natural philosophy, and the whole gamut of literary subjects, but also political economy, bookkeeping, navigation, and surveying. There is even evidence of some teaching of shorthand, at least announcements have been found suggesting that shorthand was, or would be, taught. Whether any students enrolled for the subject is not easily determined. Whether the teachers had knowledge of shorthand is another question, but it is unlikely that this would have disturbed the enterprising pedagogue of the post Colonial period. There was little use for shorthand. The county judge and even the justices of the Supreme Court made their own notes. Not even the proceedings of Congress, let alone those of the state legislatures, were kept in any detail. Thus, while the academy was completely willing to give considerable attention to business subjects, the quantity and quality of this training is questionable.

Throughout this period, the major form of business education was informal apprenticeship training. As the number of employees was small and the owner of the enterprise was in immediate control of all details, he was able to give crude but probably, on the whole, effective on-the-job instruction. Evening schools were occasionally established in most of the major cities to supplement this informal apprentice instruction. These schools included in their programs such subjects as writing, bookkeeping, and arithmetic.

THE TYPEWRITER CAUSES GROWTH OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

Business education in the schools developed with the perfection of the typewriter in the early 1870's. Typewriting mechanisms had been planned in England as early as 1714, but had not been successful. In the nineteenth century many persons invented typewriting devices, some of which enabled the typist to write almost as rapidly as he could in longhand. The machines were gradually improved, but remained cumbersome until Christopher Sholes and two associates became interested in the possibilities of the typewriter. They completed their first model in 1867 and by 1873 had further improved it, so that it was a proficient aid in business offices. It was not until 1878, however, that it was possible to write lower-case characters as well as capitals. For many years, moreover, the typist had to use the shift key not only for capitals, but also for numerals and special characters, nor could he see the typewritten copy while working. It was not until close to the twentieth century that the mechanism was perfected and that the four-finger system of typing proved to be the most efficient.

The keyboard constructed by Sholes was designed so that there would be as little chance as possible for keys to stick at the printing point. Even today, the problem of jamming has not been overcome. Many attempts have been made to devise a more scientific keyboard. The one best known is that worked out by August Dvorak which, without doubt, is more efficient than the standard keyboard. Whether Dvorak's simplified keyboard or some other more efficient keyboard will ever be universally adopted is another question.

Similarly, our unphonetic spelling is inadequate, and our calendar also is most unsatisfactory. Yet people cling to these inefficiencies because they are not convinced that the change-over will be less expensive than the benefits gained. Thus, the transition from the standard keyboard to a more scientific keyboard would require tremendous retraining. Instead of one typewriter being available in a small office, at least two would be needed. This would create operational difficulties for at least a generation of typists unless there were a universal change-over to the new keyboard. Teachers would have to be retrained and textbooks rewritten. This explanation of the difficulties is not a criticism of the splendid efforts made, but is merely an indication of the handicaps to be overcome.

Many adaptations have been made of the typewriter. The noiseless machine has caused comparatively few learning problems. The development of the portable has encouraged wide personal use of the typewriter, but consequent *learning procedures have resulted that are not very efficient*. The portable machine is not so efficient as the standard. High speeds cannot be attained, but those using the portable are generally not interested in high speed. The electric typewriter has, since the war, become standard equipment in many progressive offices. There is still question, however, whether it is wise to develop initial learning on the electric typewriter.

The development of mechanisms that combine the typewriter with calculating and adding machines has created innumerable savings in office procedures. Training in these specialized machines is not too difficult, provided the student already knows how to type and how to use a calculating machine. At present, most operators acquire their skill on the job from persons who have comparatively little teaching skill. It is doubtful whether this training can, or should be, given in the classroom, as it is in the case of shorthand and typewriting. Yet there is no question that learning on the job from untrained supervisors is unsatisfactory. Operational supervisors should be given at least a minimum skill by on the job training, so that those procedures and mechanisms that need to be taught on the job will be handled more effectively.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SHORTHAND INSTRUCTION

Shorthand was used occasionally before the invention of the typewriter. The ancient Greeks had a system of shorthand, and stenographic notes were taken of the proceedings of the Roman Senate. The adoption of Gurney shorthand as the official system for preserving the proceedings of the British Parliament gave it a prestige far beyond that of the scores of systems that preceded it. In 1837, Isaac Pitman invented a shorthand system that became widely popular. Nevertheless, the value of shorthand remained restricted until the typewriter was perfected.

With the perfection of the typewriter and its consequent wide use in business offices, shorthand also increased in importance. Typing and stenography, as concomitant skills, did not develop suddenly. They had to win their place as a means of communication against the antagonism

to the typed letter. For many years, the more conservative firms considered it an insult to their customers to send typed letters, and customers reciprocated by resenting a typed letter as one that questioned their ability to read longhand. They felt, moreover, that the personal element was taken out of the communication. Businessmen often added longhand postscripts to their typed letters in order to give them a personal touch.

In 1890, many systems of shorthand were being used in the United States, of these the Benn Pitman system, one of the numerous adaptations of Isaac Pitman, was probably the most popular. About this time, John Robert Gregg brought his system of shorthand to the United States, this has since become the predominant system and is widely used not only in the United States and other English speaking countries, but has also been successfully adapted to eleven foreign languages, among them French, Spanish, Russian and Japanese. Gregg Shorthand is taught in about 99 per cent of the cities and towns in the United States where instruction in shorthand is offered.

WOMEN GO INTO OFFICES

The development of the typewriter favored the entrance of young women into business, particularly in stenographic occupations. For many years, however, enrollment in private business schools consisted largely of men and boys so that some schools offered free tuition to women in order to encourage them to study stenography. By the beginning of the twentieth century, however, the majority of the trainees were women. Now about 95 per cent of all stenographers are women.

Before the era of typewriting and stenography, many women of the poorer classes worked outside the home, even more so in England than in the United States, school teaching was about the only respectable employment for women of the middle class. With shorthand and typewriting many new occupations opened up for women of these classes and people gradually became accustomed to the idea of their working in offices. The importance of typewriting and shorthand in bringing about great social changes, which are still in progress, has not yet been fully realized by sociologists and historians.

GROWTH OF BOOKKEEPING IN AMERICAN BUSINESS

With the growth of the size of business units, bookkeeping became a necessary skill in the control of business. When few businesses had gross incomes of over \$100,000 a year, double entry bookkeeping was not needed. The Civil War brought with it a great concentration of business enterprise caused by the necessity of supplying the armies with food, clothing, and munitions, consequently, large mercantile establishments developed.

This organization of large industrial and financial units continued after the Civil War and resulted in a steady demand for competently trained bookkeepers. As government became more concerned with the inner workings of railroads and banking houses, accountancy developed, and it became more difficult for the budding accountant to learn his art on the job. This development, like the perfection of the typewriter, also encouraged business education.

ENROLLMENT IN BUSINESS SUBJECTS

Over 47 million Americans went to all kinds of private and public schools and colleges in 1960 and over 9 million were enrolled in secondary schools (grades 9-12). If the same proportions held in 1960 that were found in a survey of subject enrollments in 1948-1949 by the U.S. Office of Education, then there were in 1960 over 4 million (46 per cent) individual subject enrollments in various business subjects. This does not mean, however, that 46 per cent of all students would be taking business subjects, because some students take two, and a few even three business subjects at one time, therefore, the proportion of students taking business subjects is unquestionably less. The U.S. Office of Education started to secure data about the number of students in business schools as early as 1870. These first records, however, are meaningless for most purposes, because the reports themselves indicate that in many instances the data are exaggerated and in other cases no returns were received.

As the 1948-1949 survey indicates, the principal subjects taught in the business program at present are typewriting shorthand and bookkeeping, followed fairly closely by general business training and business arithmetic. The survey shows that since 1933-1934 there has been some

TABLE 1 *Number and Per Cent of Estimated Enrollments in Business Subjects in 1960 and Stated Per Cents of Enrollments in 1948-1949 and 1933-1934*

Subject	Estimated Number Enrolled 1960 ¹	Estimated Per Cent Enrolled 1960	Per Cent Enrolled 1948-49 ²	Per Cent Enrolled 1933-34 ³
General business education	300 000±	3.3±	4.0	6.2
Business arithmetic	300 000±	3.3±	3.0	4.9
Bookkeeping I	330,000±	4.4±	5.8	0.9
Bookkeeping II	50,000±	5±	1.1	
Typing I	1,500,000±	18.0±	13.1	16.7
Typing II	350,000±	3.5±	4.5	
Shorthand I	300 000±	3.3±	4.2	9.0
Shorthand II	50,000±	0.5±	1.0	
Business law	140,000±	1.5±	1.0	3.2
Business English	50,000±	0.5±	0.8	0.9
Economic geography	80,000±	0.8±	1.3	4.0
Consumer economics	40 000±	0.4±	0.0	0.4
Retailing salesmanship and advertising ⁴	80,000±	0.8±	1.2	0.7
Co-operative office and co-operative store training ⁵	40 000±	0.4±	0.5	—
Office, clerical, and secretarial practice ⁶	300,000±	2.8±	1.6	1.8
Total Enrollment in Business Subjects	4 000,000±	44.2±	46.1	57.7

¹ Based on data secured in California, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and other states, and on publishers' opinions.

² *National Summary of Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects 1948-1949* Statistical Circular 293, May, 1951, U.S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C.

³ The per cents enrolled in 1948-49 were based on a total enrollment estimated at 7 000 000; therefore, though the per cent enrolled has decreased in some cases, the actual number of those enrolled has probably increased slightly. For example, the number stated as enrolled in 1948-1949 in general business, was 279,577.

⁴ Based on enrollments in subjects offered in 15 states and, therefore, the percentages are probably higher than the comparable data for 1948-1949.

⁵ It is difficult to differentiate these subjects into meaningful, separate subject classifications.

relative loss in enrollment for introduction to business, a slight decrease in the enrollment for business arithmetic in bookkeeping, and in most of the general business subjects. On the other hand, there has been a tremendous increase in the enrollment for typing. As the survey indicates, almost one fourth of all students were enrolled in typing. This heavy enrollment is probably due mainly to the emphasis on typing for 'personal use.' When the enrollments for business law, economics, geography, and consumer education are combined and even when the enrollments for introduction to business are added to the other general business subjects, they total only slightly more than the enrollment for shorthand. Adding all these subjects together, including business arithmetic and economics (listed under the social studies), the total enrollment for all general business subjects is much less than that for typing. Therefore, in spite of our considerable emphasis upon the needs of general business education for all students, only a portion of all students taking traditional business subjects—typing, shorthand, and bookkeeping—are taking one or more general business subjects.

It will be noted that penmanship and the history of commerce are not even listed. It is to be hoped that the content of these important subjects once so widely taught as part of the business program, is being integrated into other subjects in the high school. To what extent this is true is a matter of speculation. Even careful research would give only tentative evidence.

It will be noted also that there was no differentiation between office practice as an integrating and finishing course for students of shorthand and typing and bookkeeping, and clerical practice as a specialized course in a curriculum of its own. This is unfortunate, but it was no doubt exceedingly difficult for the surveyors to secure a differentiation between the two types of courses as they are given in actual practice. Training for distributive occupations continues to be given major consideration in magazines and textbook discussions. However, the number of schools offering any kind of distributive training is still small, although the George Barden Act caused considerable increase in enrollments, especially on the post high school level. The teaching of business subjects in the junior high school has not kept pace with the phenomenal growth of these institutions in recent years. Two business subjects are uniquely fitted to the junior high school program—typewriting and junior business training. What thirteen major cities are doing in junior high school type-

writing instruction alone is indicated in the following table. This enrollment has been achieved notwithstanding the fact that the development of the core curriculum concept has retarded the growth of specialized subjects.

TABLE 2 *Analysis of Typing Enrollments in Thirteen Principal Cities 1959-1960*

<i>City</i>	<i>Jr H S Typing</i>	<i>Sr H S Type 1-2^a</i>	<i>Sr H S Type 3-4^a</i>	<i>Other H S Type Courses</i>	<i>Total Typ Enrollment</i>
Chicago	—	10 674	4 003	—	14 677
Los Angeles	17 148 ^b	11,340	4 153	—	32 641
Detroit	4 637	9 050	4 393	806	19 100
Baltimore	5 360	3 031	3 509	—	11 920
Cleveland	3 778 ^b	3 783	1 889	—	9 452
St. Louis	—	3 105	1 321	—	4 516
Pittsburgh	—	5 500	1 100	—	6 600
Houston	3 423	3 313	1 963	—	8 699
Buffalo	—	2 800	—	—	2 800
Minneapolis	1 645 ^b	1 980	—	960	4 594
Seattle	—	4 680	937 ^d	601	6 278
Syracuse	—	1 100	—	380	1 480
Tulsa	1 781	979	—	917	3 677
Totals	37 772 ^c	61 607	23 288	3 753	120 440
% of Whole	29.0%	48.7%	18.4%	3.0%	100.0%

(a) Type 1 = first semester Type 2 = second semester etc. (b) Includes both 1 sem and 2 sem students (c) Includes Type 3 and 4 (d) Third semester no fourth (e) Includes 200 personal use H S students

Of course there are many thousands of additional students enrolled for shorthand and typewriting on the post secondary school level in private business schools, junior colleges, in various forms of vocational institutes in collegiate schools of business and in liberal art colleges. There are even more students enrolled for accounting in these post secondary schools. There are many additional thousands of students in management general business office practice of various types and in various forms of marketing and distributive education. Data on the enrollment for these various subjects are difficult to secure and are at present not available. It would be desirable for the U.S. Office of Educa-

tion, as the next step, to secure whatever information it could on these enrollments even though they might not be as exact

BUSINESS TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS AND PUBLICATIONS

In 1866, a group of private-school proprietors, not satisfied with the Bryant and Stratton management (see Chapter XXV), formed the National Union of Colleges designed to preserve the advantages of the chain and overcome its weaknesses. The breakdown of the Bryant and Stratton chain soon thereafter made this new organization unnecessary and consequently a group of proprietors met in 1867 under the name of the International Business College Association. The last meeting of this group was held in 1873 and was attended by the venerable R. M. Bartlett, a pioneer in business school training. A severe economic depression took place in the following years, causing a drop in enrollment in business schools, so that no association meetings were held.

As business revived, the Business Educators Association was formed in 1878. It published annual monographs which gave a fairly good idea of the points of view then held. Problems of enrollment, the ethics of recruitment, selection of teachers, the place of women in business, equipment, facilities, and many other topics, still important today, were discussed. The Business Educators Association became affiliated with the National Education Association in 1893 as the Department of Business Education. Evidently these private business school teachers were not entirely happy in their affiliation with an association composed almost entirely, and under the control, of public-school teachers and administrators. As a result, the Eastern Business (originally Commercial) Teachers Association (EBTA) was formed in 1894, and the National Commercial Teachers Federation, now known as the National Business Teachers Association (NBTA), was formed about the same time. For many years these two organizations dominated the field of business education, and until recent years, were controlled by private-business-school membership.

The Department of Business Education (United Business Education Association) has had a rather uneven growth, inasmuch as its meetings are held simultaneously with the summer meeting of the National Education Association. These meetings take place in a different city each year, attendance is composed, therefore, very largely of local people,

plus a nucleus of those especially concerned with the organization. Most business teachers who are professionally inclined and who would like to attend are usually participating in summer-school programs, making their presence at the meetings impossible.

In 1946, the Department of Business Education was reorganized, under the leadership of Hamden L. Forkner, into the United Business Education Association (UBEA) and has now become the largest business teachers' association in the country. With the help of the parent organization, the National Education Association, the UBEA has been able to appoint a full time paid executive secretary (Hollis Guy, 1946 to present) with offices in Washington, D. C. The establishment of this office is a major progressive step in the field of business education. In 1932, the Department of Business Education founded a *Quarterly*, each issue of which is organized as a monograph on a particular phase of business education. The United Business Education Association has continued this publication. In addition, however, the United Business Education Association publishes a monthly magazine, *THE UBEA Forum* which is sent to all members. Each issue is devoted to a special phase of business education of interest to the classroom teacher, material of general interest is also included.

The National Council for Business Education was established by Paul S. Lomax, Edward J. McNamara, and Frederick J. Nichols, among others, in 1934 to achieve unity in business education, and it was therefore composed only of business teacher associations. In 1946, this Council was merged into the UBEA and became its executive board. Efforts are now being made to get the regional organizations to come under the umbrella of the UBEA. The Southern Business Teachers Association, the Western Business Teachers Association, and the Mountains Plains Business Education Association are affiliated with the UBEA, as well as numerous state business teachers associations. Serious steps have been taken since 1950 to bring the National Business Teachers Association and the Eastern Business Teachers Association into this same affiliation. As of 1960, there still seems to be no solution to the problem of unification that will meet the demands of those who control the national group and those who control the two unaffiliated regions. Teachers would like to see an end to the discussion based on some effective arrangement, so that those in positions of control and leadership will be able to represent business education more adequately.

The UBEA has set up several professional divisions. The Research

Division and the Administration Division were organized within the UBEA. The National Association of Business Teacher Training Institutions, with an effective bulletin of its own, and the American Chapter of the International Society for Business Education were merged after having been independent associations.

Since 1928, the EBTA, and since 1936, the NBTA have been publishing yearbooks. From 1944 on, a joint yearbook, *The American Business Education Yearbook* has been published by the EBTA and NBTA. If the NBTA joins the UBEA family, this publication will cease in its present form.

Several of the other associations publish periodicals. The Commercial Education Association of the City of New York for example has been publishing yearbooks since 1930. Several of these yearbooks have had far more than local distribution.

Delta Pi Epsilon is a national graduate honorary business-education fraternity with over 33 chapters in leading graduate schools and with over 3,000 members. It sponsors research and professional service projects. Pi Omega Pi is primarily an undergraduate honorary business education fraternity with many chapters in colleges all over the country. Both groups are working to upgrade business education as a profession.

Among the magazines, not connected with associations, in the field of business education are the following:

The Balance Sheet first issued in 1919 and distributed free of charge to all business teachers, is the largest single means of disseminating news and literature of interest to business teachers. It is well organized and although frankly published as a house organ, contains many articles of high professional caliber. Shorthand tends to receive only incidental consideration. The South Western Publishing Company has also published over 100 monographs of importance in the field of business education.

The *American Shorthand Teacher* was started by the Gregg Publishing Company in 1920. Its name was changed to the *Business Education World* in 1933 in order to indicate its coverage of all aspects of business education. This magazine also has a wide circulation and significant influence in the field. The Gregg Publishing Company, as the business education division of the McGraw Hill Book Company, now also publishes the *Business Teacher*, which is sent to almost all business teachers and many general administrators.

The *Journal of Commercial Education* was started as a private enter-

prise in 1925 and was continued for several years under the leadership of Earl W. Barnhart. In 1928, the *Journal of Business Education* appeared as another independent magazine and took over almost immediately the *Journal of Commercial Education*. Because it is connected with no publisher or association, it probably gives the most independent opportunities for the discussion of issues in business education.

Several state teacher colleges publish excellent bulletins especially devoted to business education.

Although there are far more teachers of business than of all other vocational subjects combined, they lack the ability to present a united front as do some other teacher groups. The American Vocational Association is a powerful, well led, and professionally minded association of vocational teachers. It has a section concerned with business education, and one of the Association vice-presidents is assigned to distributive education. However, business teachers have displayed little interest in the A V A, and the A V A in turn has not concerned itself as much with business education as with other aspects of vocational education. For that reason, possibly, business education has not been given the same consideration in the distribution of Federal funds as have the other aspects of job training.

Private business schools have set up organizations of their own. These will be considered in Chapter XXV, "Private Business Schools." Parochial schools also have an effective organization in the Catholic Business Teachers Association.

In Europe, secondary-school and college teachers of business subjects consider themselves members of one professional teaching group. This is due to the fact that the secondary schools and colleges form one educational system apart from the elementary schools. In the United States one educational pattern is formed by the public elementary and high schools, with the colleges superimposed on this basic public-school structure. Possibly as a result of this pattern, college teachers of business subjects have had very little interest in the affairs of secondary-school and private school business teachers. This disinterest has been reciprocated. The collegiate business school administrators have found the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business an effective vehicle for organizational unity. Whether the college teachers will remain separate in spirit and in fact from the secondary school teachers is another question that has not been decided. To date, therefore, the

various parts of business education have had a theoretical unity of interest in their common teaching subject, but, in practice, this unity has not been carried out. Inability to reconcile the diversities of interest in business education may be a serious handicap in the growth of a real profession.

FEDERAL AID FOR BUSINESS EDUCATION

When the Smith-Hughes Act was passed in 1917, provision was made for the establishment of a commercial education service in the Federal Board for Vocational Education. Cheesman A. Herrick served a brief period for business education, but the first active chief was Frederick G. Nichols who gave the service energetic leadership. When Nichols went to Harvard University in 1921 to take over the training of business teachers in the Graduate School of Education, he was succeeded by Earl W. Barnhart, who continued until 1936 when B. Frank Kyker became chief of the service. After a lapse of several years during which there was no person responsible for business education (i.e. office training), a specialist was appointed in late 1959, however, a staff of workers in distributive education was continued.

The Smith-Hughes Act provided funds for all kinds of office training on a part-time basis in continuation schools. These funds are allocated through the vocational education services of the various state departments of education. Practically, however, very little of this money was ever made available for business education, as the demands from the other fields of vocational education were so great that usually nothing was left for part-time business education. The passage of the George-Deen Act in 1937 gave a special allotment of \$1,200,000 to distributive education. The George Barden Bill of 1946 doubled this sum. Developments in the use of this fund will be discussed in Chapter XXI 'Distributive Education'.

One of the major organizational problems of business education is the difference in interests between private and public business education. The public school business teachers tend to be very much interested in the growth of business education and usually are strong advocates of Federal aid for business training. While the leaders in the private business schools are anxious to co-operate in the establishment of sound programs of business education in the high schools, they naturally tend

to oppose Federal subsidies for business education that are not available to privately controlled institutions. Although these two segments of business education have diverse interests in some respect, they also have a great many problems in common.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 Why was training for business completely accidental in ancient and medieval times when training for the priesthood, for example, had already become highly formalized?
- 2 Why was the apprenticeship system used less generally in training for business than in training for the trades?
- 3 Why was there so little interest in business education during the Colonial period of American history?
- 4 How did the perfection of the typewriter as a mechanical device cause the great growth of business training?
- 5 Trace the development of shorthand from Roman times to the present. What do you think is the future of shorthand?
- 6 Write an extended commentary on the present enrollment status of business education. Is this enrollment likely to increase or decrease? Why?
- 7 Why did business teacher associations first arise in private business schools?
- 8 Describe your plan for the improvement of the associational activities of business teachers. Why do you think this plan is the most effective?

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CHAPTER III

Relationship to the Total Educational Process

WHAT is the relationship of the purposes of education as a whole to business education in particular? The purposes of education have been explained and classified in a multitude of ways by individuals and commissions, particularly during the past fifty years. Plato first undertook the job over two thousand years ago. Though in some ways these classifications do not agree with those that would be acceptable in an American democracy, they still offer fruitful suggestions to contemporary educational philosophers. Herbert Spencer, writing about a century ago, was eminently successful. Except for slight changes in terminology, his statement of purposes is as valid today as when it was written. Perhaps the purpose most commonly accepted is that of the National Education Association's Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education presented over thirty-five years ago. It lists as the cardinal principles of secondary education (1) health, (2) command of the fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) civic education, (6) worthy use of leisure, (7) ethical character.

More recently the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association defined the purposes of education as self realization, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. Three of these purposes will be treated briefly later in this chapter in their relationship to business education. Economic efficiency will be

treated in detail in a later chapter because it is of special importance to business education

EDUCATION AS LIFE ADJUSTMENT

For a time after World War II, great emphasis was placed upon education as life adjustment. It will be noticed that education as adjustment to life situations is inherent in the definitions of education given in the preceding chapter. The movement toward looking upon education as life adjustment arose from an awareness of the unsatisfactory nature of much of school learning as developed in the secondary schools. It was felt that education, or schooling, was not unsatisfactory for those 20 per cent, of students, more or less, who went to college or, as a rule, for that 20 per cent, more or less, who secured specific job training in the school. However, it was felt that the secondary school program of instruction was completely inadequate in helping the student adjust himself if he strove toward neither of these goals.

The remaining 60 per cent of the high school students, who neither go to college nor take specific job training in the school, was felt to be receiving an especially inadequate consideration, because the program of instruction was not helping them to make adequate adjustments to life. These nonvocational, noncollege preparation students are taking, typically, formal science, formal history, academic English, and similar subjects which, while they can be related to life by an unusually gifted person, are generally meaningless in the daily life of the average student.

The purpose of the life adjustment movement, therefore, is to encourage secondary school administrators to organize their work for this large body of students so that it will be meaningful in their daily life activities and help them to make a better and more rapid adjustment to the life that they are living. In a sense, there is nothing new about the life adjustment program. It is a revised concept of the cardinal principles of education developed in 1918 and is a reorganized presentation of the objectives set up by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association as presented here.

The life adjustment movement, however, is important in that it looks upon the problem of the improvement of the secondary school in a different light. It emphasizes not only subject matter adjustment to the

OBJECTIVES OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

Among these objectives are

Respect for Humanity The educated person puts human relationships first.

Friendships The educated person enjoys a rich sincere and varied social life

Co-operation The educated person can work and play with others

Courtesy The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior

Appreciation of the Home The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution

Conservation of the Home The educated person conserves family ideals

Homemaking The educated person is skilled in homemaking

Democracy in the Home The educated person maintains democratic family relationships

These objectives relate very closely, it will be noted, with the specific objectives of business education

OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

Among these objectives are

Social Justice The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance

Social Activity The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions

Social Understanding The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and processes

Critical Judgment The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion

Conservation The educated citizen has a regard for the nation's resources

Social Applications of Science The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare

World Citizenship The educated citizen is a co-operating member of the world community

Law Observance The educated citizen respects the law

Economic Literacy The educated citizen accepts his civic duties

Devotion to Democracy The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.

OBJECTIVES OF ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

Among the objectives of economic efficiency generally are listed the following

An appreciation of good workmanship

An understanding of the requirements and opportunities in various occupations

The capacity to select an occupation intelligently

The ability to succeed vocationally

An appreciation of the social value of one's job

Ability to maintain and improve economic efficiency

The capacity for planning one's economic life

The development of standards for guiding expenditures

Skillful and informed buying

An ability to safeguard one's interests

These are the essential purposes of business education. The rest of this book is concerned largely with elucidating these objectives and indicating how they may be accomplished in the school.

The primary aim of business education is to prepare the student to obtain a position and to advance himself therein. The problems of determining available occupations, the number of workers needed, opportunities for advancement, type of preparation, and what schools are and should be doing to meet specific vocational opportunities are matters of such vital importance that they will be considered in detail in later chapters. Here it will suffice to say that, unless a person is at least fairly successful vocationally, he has not realized the aim of secondary education, and he has failed to do complete justice to himself and to the community. The remainder of this chapter will, therefore, deal with the objectives of economic and consumer efficiency in a little more detail.

CONSUMER TRAINING NEEDED BY ALL

Consumer training is needed by everyone, for many economic ills are self-made. The consumption habits of Americans are seriously deficient. It is the business of education to correct them.

In spite of the fact that a large number of families do not have adequate incomes (in terms of the minimum standards of living set up by

the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and by the National Conference Board), they spend far more than is necessary for shelter, clothing food, and the like

In many cases, people do not live within their income because they spend carelessly and unwisely, rather than because they are extravagant. They foolishly assume that greater expenditure increases the family's well being. To teach people to live within their means is not easy, but the difficulty of the task should not hinder the attempt.

CONSUMER PLANNING

Most people have rather low economic security. Sudden disabilities, unpredictable losses in savings, insufficient income to provide for savings, and seasonal unemployment interfere with the best individual financial plans. No matter how careful the individual is in making his financial adjustments, community hazards are such that they may easily nullify carefully thought out programs. To cope with these problems, the community is increasingly making provision for individual security through large scale Government action. Rapid progress has been made in the last few years. Provision for old age, illness, and unemployment are still not satisfactory. How they can be made satisfactory without destroying the economic system because of their cost, and how such programs can be put into effect without undermining the initiative of the individual will be major problems of the coming generation. There is no question, however, that sincere efforts will be made to cope with this all important problem.

If the American economic system is to remain one of free enterprise, it is obvious that, in the final analysis, the Government can only help the individual avoid excessive financial disaster. The planning of usual expenditures must remain within the province of the individual's own sphere. The natural urge of humans is to do the easiest thing first and to consume the most pleasant services and commodities before those that have remote values. Experience usually makes individuals curb this tendency, for they find that thoughtlessness about the future soon catches up with them. However, some people become so aware of future needs that they save excessively, and as a result, often have neither present nor future benefit from their occupational efforts. The school cannot make all students intelligent planners. It can, however, gradually help

build up an intelligent understanding of the problem by numerous concrete examples and thus encourage sensible planning, which takes into account present needs, future demands, and community programs for security.

CONSUMER STANDARDS

When consumers have poor judgment about values in buying, they decrease their standard of living below that which the economic system can provide. National productive effort is, moreover, misdirected. The potential buyer in the consumer market needs training so as to improve his scale of values and to help him evaluate his own standards. There should be constant questioning of whether one's choices in consumption are dictated by outworn custom and mere imitation of others.

What are desirable standards of consumption? Various housing authorities have suggested, for example, minimum standards of housing for all. Federal projects thus far attempted have achieved these for only a fraction of those persons living in buildings classified as substandard. The others are still in their typical substandard houses.

Is this a desirable method of approach? Have the American people changed so completely in their patterns of satisfaction that they now require housing conditions that involve centralized heating, electricity, indoor lavatory and bathing facilities, or are these patterns set up as basic requirements by those who consider them as inevitable? Have these general wants actually been converted into specific needs, and is this change basic to the attainment of minimum satisfaction in our present day social life? Are such formal standards to be preferred to cultural values? Must we choose between the two? Can we not have both? Plans for factory built prefabricated houses may give people these values without too great a sacrifice of other values.

The American people should develop better standards for the merchandise and services that they buy. Considerable progress has been made in the standardization of various commodities and services offered for sale. Far greater progress, however, must be made.

Government determination and regulation of standards probably is basic to the achievement of usable standards that can be legally enforced. The Food and Drug Act of 1906 made a beginning in this direction, which was followed by the recent amendment to this act and

by the Wheeler Lea Act. The Government fails, however, to make available to the public many standards that it has already developed for its own use and for the use of the manufacturer. It is imperative for the proper achievement of wise consumption that the Government make these knowledges available to the general public and that the Government set up some means of regulating and legally enforcing those standards. They can be guided, nevertheless, toward using charts that suggest the more typical grades for various commodities.

There is at present a vigorous discussion of the value of grade labeling. Some advertisers think it would hinder sound competition, while some defenders of the consumer think it is the only way to make competition really effective. The fact is that not all goods can be labeled so that the explanation or grade will be meaningful to the consumer. There is, therefore, a limit to the value of such consumer guides. A compromise between the present chaotic state and the extreme of excessive labeling which might confuse the consumer, is probably in order.

EFFICIENCY IN BUYING

A person can improve his economic condition by wise spending which implies careful management and the reduction of unwarranted expenditures. Many spending units devote more income to tobacco and liquor than they do to reading material or even to life insurance. Many families run automobiles at a cost far above what they spend for health and education combined.

Families often make poor choices in their selection of merchandise and services in their buying. Even more important, they often pay more than is necessary for inferior goods. Consumers Union of United States, Inc., of Mount Vernon, New York, a nonprofit organization which has far over a half million members, helps consumers make more intelligent choices among the many brands of goods offered. Organizations, such as this one, make an important contribution to better consumption and deserve the encouragement of the schools in furthering their work.

The tendency for increased marketing costs to result in decreased production costs has been passed on to the consumer in the form of lower consumer prices. Yet the glaring discrepancies between basic production costs and final sales costs indicate a weakness in the otherwise quite efficient service business renders the consumer. The low

prices paid the farmer and comparatively high prices paid by the ultimate consumer of farm produce are especially disheartening and are used by many as a basis for sweeping indictments of business.

TRAINING NEEDED IN BUYMANSHIP

The buyer, it can be seen, plays an important part in the consumption system of society. In dealing with the work of the consumer, it is not always possible to get at reasons for choice making. The school can best contribute to intelligent and economical consumption by training in careful buying. The consumer achieves this goal when he gets what he wants at the lowest price and best quality obtainable. Therefore, although there is a relationship, educating the consumer to be an intelligent buyer means something different from educating him to cultivate higher forms of desires and a higher sense of values.

Training in buymanship is not so big a job, nor is it so penetrating in its purposes, as training the consumers in wise choice making. It is true, also, that choice making is more fundamental. Nevertheless, the consumer must know the conditions in the market in which he is making his purchases. A valid program of consumer education will, therefore, make the consumer aware of the techniques of marketing used in his community. Fundamentally, he must have a fairly good understanding of the point of view of the merchant. In order to be able to utilize the services of the seller, the consumer should understand sales methods and promotional devices and be familiar with price policies so that he can use those policies that are to his advantage.

CONSUMER PROTECTION

The wise consumer knows how to protect himself through collective action and by using the legal means available in local, state, and Federal regulations. He must also recognize the adequacy of such protection and work for desirable changes along with other consumer groups. Where consumer co-operatives can render him better goods and services than those made available through the regular markets, he quickly utilizes them. The intelligent consumer knows where to go for truthful advice on the value of various brands of merchandise. He not only evaluates the truthfulness of advertising but also those who would give critical

judgments about goods, to determine whether they also are unprejudiced. He is cautious even in the use of opinions given by Government agencies, for while they are not motivated in a monetary sense, except in rare cases, they may at times not be entirely impartial.

A considerable phase of consumer education must be developed in the elementary school as an aspect of all other learning, this, in fact, has been well done in a considerable number of communities. The school, however, controls the student for such a small portion of the day that it is quite impossible for an individual teacher to undertake more than the improvement of consumption in certain particular aspects. If teachers will recognize their limited opportunity and carry through their task as well as possible business education in the school may make a substantial contribution to the improvement of selection for consumption and thereby help considerably in the attainment of a better educational process and of a better social order.

SUMMARY OF CONSUMER WEAKNESSES

Some indication of the consumer weaknesses prevalent in this country has already been given. The reader is referred to the bibliography at the end of the chapter as a source for other weaknesses. To summarize, it may be said that consumer weaknesses fall into seven categories:

- 1 Lack of method in buying
- 2 Lack of foresight in method of payment, particularly abuse of the installment system
- 3 Failure to make better use of avenues of borrowing money
- 4 Susceptibility to the enticements of false advertising
- 5 Unsound programs of investment
- 6 Inadequate attention to the reduction of economic risk
- 7 Inability to manage the monetary affairs of the individual and his family

ECONOMIC ILLITERACY

Ignorance of business relationships is a common consumer weakness. It is difficult to study the economic process as a whole because of the infinite specialization to which the individual is subjected. He sees only fragments of the entire process and, therefore, emphasizes one part at

the expense of the whole. The development of a better understanding of economic relationships is uniquely the function of the school.

The average business organization will not, and probably cannot, make certain that each of its workers has a complete and unbiased understanding of the relations of that particular business to the entire economic structure. The individual stenographer in an airtransport company does not need to know all about the process of airship building or of aerodynamics, but he does need to have an awareness of the relationship of these developments to his work in particular and to the social process in general. This is true for all of us. Economic illiteracy is too common to need more discussion of its existence. Unfortunately, it is not confined to unskilled laborers but prevails even among those persons who have had courses in economics and have read widely on social topics.

CONCLUSION

Every teacher must contemplate the goals of education in order to solve his own particular problems and formulate modes of expression. Earlier in this chapter several presentations of goals in previous years were discussed. Current emphasis is upon life adjustment as a vehicle for attaining the goals of education. The struggle to attain these goals through school learning has always been and always will be facing the teacher. The problem is perennial because the school as a social institution always has a tendency to crystalize into a form, rather than serve as a function. Formalized procedures are academic and arbitrary and therefore soon are lost to their purposes. Witness the purposeless activity for the sake of activity that was so prevalent in the school a little while ago. What is progressive in one period becomes a millstone to progress in the next.

Yet without form the school is unable to cope with the complexity of society. Therefore, schools are constantly trying to organize good procedures into packaged forms, and at the same time, working to break the form to get at the real purposes of education.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How do the cardinal principles relate to the goals set up by the Educational Policies Commission? To what extent is the development of life

adjustment an extension of the concepts of the Educational Policies Commission?

2 Why is it uniquely important for the businessman to be especially literate in economics?

3 What is the relationship of current concepts of life adjustment to the present developments in business education?

4 Much has been written on consumer grade labeling. Summarize the literature of the past year and evaluate it in terms of your own judgments.

5 What must still be done to give the consumer better protection? Can the consumer be overprotected? Why and how?

6 Read Chapters III, IV, and V in *Education for Business*, by Lyon. Show how the specialization of business has accentuated the need for economic literacy. Give five examples.

7 How satisfactory is American income at present? What can be done to improve it? Is income the only factor in economic well being?

8 Why are business relationships so difficult to grasp? What misunderstandings have developed in this respect?

9 In an organized statement of about 500 words, summarize your suggestions for the solution in part or in whole of the current problems of American business. Base your statements upon a reading of several of the books and articles suggested in the readings for this chapter.

10 What are the limitations of the school in attaining consumer and economic efficiency? Go to book and magazine references for your judgment, but form your own opinion based on personal observation and discussion with several people who are in your opinion quite literate in economic life.

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CHAPTER IV

The Fundamental Processes and Business Education

AMONG the fundamental processes or tools of learning that every person needs in business are (1) reading ability, (2) the ease of oral, written, and graphic or pictorial expression, (3) computational skill.

Briefly summarized, these processes may be called reading, writing, and arithmetic. An ability to do sound, reflective thinking, a knowledge of basic science, and other fundamentals and skills are, of course, important, but they are equally vital in other phases of social life. Hence, the discussion here will be limited to the three processes that are particularly related to business activity.

THE WORK OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The elementary school, it is true, has been thought of as the place for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic. High school teachers get strong support from businessmen in their complaints about the inefficiency of our elementary schools in teaching these fundamental skills. Comparisons with the work done in our schools a hundred years ago do not support this criticism, but the achievements of children in the elementary schools in other countries do. Teachers are often amazed at the achievements of pupils coming from foreign countries. They have had the same general type of training and are not, as American teachers

discover, above our own children in intelligence. There is specific evidence of the greater efficiency of the schools of Great Britain, and even of Canada, as compared with those of the United States when similar types of tests are used. Yet, it is upon the success of the school and its achievements of the fundamentals that the respect, and even awe, of the American people for the public school system are based.

To blame the elementary school teacher is begging the question. The probabilities are that there are a multitude of factors involved. Fundamental among them is the inability of certain slow minded pupils to grasp subject matter of this difficult nature within the period that is sufficient for the average student. Illness, absence from school, unsatisfactory home conditions, occasional incompetence on the part of teachers, and a multitude of other factors undoubtedly supplement this basic slowness.

The relative success, which has been attained in spite of a very high rate of turnover of teachers, very poor salaries, and often grossly inadequate training can be explained by the high degree of motivation for learning created by the parents and, in some measure though usually distantly recognized, by the students themselves. A clear consciousness on the part of the teachers of the objectives to be attained is also of vital importance.

HOW EFFECTIVE IS THE TEACHING OF THE THREE R'S?

According to those who believe in what is generally known as progressive education, instruction in the fundamentals is more effective and less wasteful than was similar teaching in the early years of the century. Numerous studies have been made which purport to show that students now taking tests given to similar students several and even many decades ago do better than their elders did. Such studies may be biased because they are often undertaken by those who wish to prove that schools are now as effective as they were. Anyone acquainted with research procedures knows that even when one wishes to be objective, there is an unconscious tendency to read into data those things one wishes to see and to distort evidence. In spite of this, it is admitted that children in some schools in New York, Texas, and Colorado show poorer results than were formerly attained.

As a recent and thoughtful discussion of the subject points out ¹

Criticism of present day teaching is not always founded on facts. The schools need to answer their critics with facts. Planned programs of testing with careful analysis of results will help to provide facts on a local school. If a basis of fact exists for criticism, the school should acknowledge it and change its curriculum or methods of instruction. If planned research shows that the criticism is unfounded, as comparative studies of pupil achievement often show, then the school would do well to publicize these facts. In any case, national and regional research are not the best answers. Schools need to test at the "grass roots" level for answers to local critics and to use public relations programs to tell the public about the work of modern schools.

The point that is neglected in this controversy is that if the schools do only as well or even a little better than they formerly did, then that in itself is a severe indictment of the schools. The teaching of the three R's, as well as other subjects, in former days was generally done very poorly. Typical of the methods used then was rote drill, directed toward ill-determined goals and taught by teachers who merely imitated those who also taught in this traditional way. If all our studies and science of education lead to nothing much better than was typical of the past, then our attainments in the three R's are low indeed.

THE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The present attitude of high school teachers and businessmen alike is that elementary school graduates have neither the will nor the ability to do satisfactory work in the fundamental processes. The business teacher cannot pass the responsibility to the elementary school teachers because these teachers insist, with a rather reasonable basis, that the function of the elementary school has changed in recent years. The businessman and the community in general will hold the business teachers responsible for the failures of high school business graduates to attain *adequate standards in the fundamental processes*, and rightly so. It is, therefore, one of the basic jobs of business education to (1) determine adequate standards in the fundamental processes, (2) train all secondary

¹ *The Three R's Hold Their Own at the Midcentury*, Research Division Bulletin, National Education Association. Washington 6, D. C., 1951, 28 pp.

school students to meet these standards as well as possible, (3) train all those who are classed as business students so that they meet the standards thoroughly

HIGH SCHOOL TEACHING OF THE FUNDAMENTALS

The teacher of business subjects, in almost all cases, must assume that his students have had little or no previous acquaintance with shorthand and bookkeeping. It is presumed, however, that all high school students have had some training in reading, writing, and arithmetic and have attained various levels of proficiency. The teacher must discover not only what the pupil does not know, but also why he continues to make errors. Most of the work of the secondary school in fundamentals should, therefore, be on a remedial basis. Yet, at present, the high school, if it deals with these subjects at all, presents them as though the pupil had never studied them. This relearning from scratch is not quite as unwise as ignoring the problem altogether, but it is wasteful. However, the secondary school must face this challenge, not by condemning or 'passing the buck,' but by teaching the fundamental processes.

Remedial teaching is technical and requires skill, it can be effective only when the bases for inadequate skill are understood. Lack of this understanding is probably one of the reasons why secondary school teachers complain that their students are not adequately prepared, because they themselves fail to recognize the knowledges, skills, and attitudes that are fundamental.

Teachers who present the fundamentals in the secondary school are, for the most part, primarily interested in some other subject. They deal with the basic practices only incidentally, ignoring the fact that successful learning of the primary interest is dependent on the skills in the fundamentals. For example, bookkeeping teachers are apt to emphasize arithmetic only to the extent to which it is necessary in the learning of bookkeeping. Stenography teachers train their students in good English usage only to the extent to which it is necessary for the skills that they are trying to develop. They are satisfied, therefore, if students progress just sufficiently to learn the subject of primary interest and fail to develop complete mastery of the fundamental skill. Consequently, when the topic has been covered, the process of forgetting begins, and the knowl-

As a recent and thoughtful discussion of the subject points out ¹

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The point that is neglected in this controversy is that if the schools do only as well or even a little better than they formerly did, then that in itself is a severe indictment of the schools. The teaching of the three R's, as well as other subjects, in former days was generally done very poorly. Typical of the methods used then was rote drill, directed toward ill determined goals and taught by teachers who merely imitated those who also taught in this traditional way. If all our studies and science of education lead to nothing much better than was typical of the past, then our attainments in the three R's are low indeed.

THE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The present attitude of high school teachers and businessmen alike is that elementary school graduates have neither the will nor the ability to do satisfactory work in the fundamental processes. The business teacher cannot pass the responsibility to the elementary school teachers because these teachers insist, with a rather reasonable basis, that the function of the elementary school has changed in recent years. The businessman and the community in general will hold the business teachers responsible for the failures of high school business graduates to attain adequate standards in the fundamental processes, and rightly so. It is, therefore, one of the basic jobs of business education to (1) determine adequate standards in the fundamental processes, (2) train all secondary

¹ *The Three R's Hold Their Own at the Midcentury*, Research Division Bulletin National Education Association. Washington 6 D. C., 1951, 28 pp.

school students to meet these standards as well as possible, (3) train all those who are classed as business students so that they meet the standards thoroughly

HIGH SCHOOL TEACHING OF THE FUNDAMENTALS

The teacher of business subjects, in almost all cases, must assume that his students have had little or no previous acquaintance with shorthand and bookkeeping. It is presumed, however, that all high school students have had some training in reading, writing, and arithmetic and have attained various levels of proficiency. The teacher must discover not only what the pupil does not know, but also why he continues to make errors. Most of the work of the secondary school in fundamentals should, therefore, be on a remedial basis. Yet, at present, the high school, if it deals with these subjects at all, presents them as though the pupil had never studied them. This relearning from scratch is not quite as unwise as ignoring the problem altogether, but it is wasteful. However, the secondary school must face this challenge, not by condemning or "passing the buck," but by teaching the fundamental processes.

Remedial teaching is technical and requires skill, it can be effective only when the bases for inadequate skill are understood. Lack of this understanding is probably one of the reasons why secondary school teachers complain that their students are not adequately prepared, because they themselves fail to recognize the knowledges, skills, and attitudes that are fundamental.

Teachers who present the fundamentals in the secondary school are, for the most part, primarily interested in some other subject. They deal with the basic practices only incidentally, ignoring the fact that successful learning of the primary interest is dependent on the skills in the fundamentals. For example, bookkeeping teachers are apt to emphasize arithmetic only to the extent to which it is necessary in the learning of bookkeeping. Stenography teachers train their students in good English usage only to the extent to which it is necessary for the skills that they are trying to develop. They are satisfied, therefore, if students progress just sufficiently to learn the subject of primary interest and fail to develop complete mastery of the fundamental skill. Consequently, when the topic has been covered the process of forgetting begins, and the knowl-

As a recent and thoughtful discussion of the subject points out.¹

Criticism of present day teaching is not always founded on facts. The schools need to answer their critics with facts. Planned programs of testing with careful analysis of results will help to provide facts on a local school. If a basis of fact exists for criticism, the school should acknowledge it and change its curriculum or methods of instruction. If planned research shows that the criticism is unfounded, as comparative studies of pupil achievement often show, then the school would do well to publicize these facts. In any case, national and regional research are not the best answers. Schools need to test at the "grass roots" level for answers to local critics and to use public relations programs to tell the public about the work of modern schools.

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edge of the students soon falls below desirable levels. If, however, the teacher had brought the pupils to a state of real mastery, they would have retained the knowledge for a considerably longer period.

In giving remedial instruction in the fundamentals of the secondary school level, it is vitally important to realize that minimum competencies are not identical for all students. Some nonacademic students may require comparatively little competency. They can get along quite well, in terms of the things that they are going to do in their daily lives, with a minimum ability in reading, writing and in computation. On the other hand other students may require a relatively high degree of competency in these fundamentals, in terms of the things which they are likely to do in their present life, and even more particularly in adult life. Remedial instruction on the secondary school level, therefore, must not set up uniform standards of achievement for all students, but rather standards for specific objectives.

This diversification of standards complicates the problems of the teacher of remedial work. It means that he must determine the needs and capacities of each student before he sets his goals. To set uniform standards for all secondary school students in the fundamental processes would be most unwise, because it would result in unreasonably high standards for some students and unsatisfactorily low standards for others.

However, at all levels of learning competency, essentially the same procedures must be developed. Minimum requirements of any particular level of capacity and need must be determined, and once these have been determined it is vitally necessary for the student to achieve thorough mastery in these fundamental processes. Where the nonacademic student may learn much less in quantity and quality, that which he does learn should be thoroughly mastered, and while the scholastically minded student may learn a great deal more in quantity and quality, that which he learns must also be thoroughly mastered in order to be meaningful in his daily life.

ENGLISH IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Among the traditional teachings presented in the secondary school that are usually useless and archaic are most grammatical learnings. People usually learn to speak properly not because they have learned the formalities of grammar but because they have associated with

people who speak correctly Children learn to speak good English not by being told to, but by imitation Most grammar taught in the elementary school is an attempt to give English a formal grammatical structure, such as Latin has Much of the meaning of English depends on the placement of words in the sentence rather than on their particular case or form People have said that they did not understand English grammar until they had learned Latin grammar, thereby justifying Latin grammar because it better explains English grammar Quite to the contrary, there is little meaning to English grammar as such Its value lies in its acceptance as a means of clear, coherent, and informative expression In other words, it is important to us not so much for its rules but more for its implication that understanding and learning depend on good expression

This does not mean that all grammatical study should be considered taboo in the school program A minimum study that has proved to result in better usage is justified Moreover, for the more able students, it is interesting and profitable to give some attention to the structure of language Where the study of grammar does not interfere with basic instruction, time may well be given to the study of the little form structure that the English language possesses

The business teacher, in co operation with all other teachers, must therefore set up reasonable standards for good English speech and writing The typical businessman, be he worker or employer, is not expected or even supposed to use perfect English in the traditional sense The businessman who insists upon excessive niceties of English and winces when he hears others ignore them will do himself more harm than good The business person who is concerned that a student says "the right kind of a procedure" instead of 'the right kind of procedure' is petty to the point of being a nuisance "It don't" and "nobody was doing nothin'" is still not acceptable, but concern about *who* and *whom* at the expense of a free flow of speech is unnecessary We must realize, however, that usage acceptable in speech, where facial expression supplements the spoken word, often cannot be tolerated in written statements, because it fails to communicate complete understanding

English is a growing, changing language and considerable deviation from the arbitrary dictionary standard is typical of the usual businessman Students should be brought up to this standard, and if possible, a little above it However, at the high school level, at least, there are more important goals to attain than formal and arbitrary grammatical correct-

ness, although the minimum standard should be a serious goal and students should not be permitted to graduate as business students unless they measure up to it

Spelling must be taught in the school, so that people will use the more acceptable forms of spelling, but it makes little difference whether *judgment* is spelled with or without an *e* after the *g* or whether *data* is pronounced according to its English or Latin pronunciation

Consistency should, of course, be stressed. Attempts to make these points essential in the school curriculum clutter up the school with meaningless instruction. Instruction of this type is as unnecessary and wasteful as is the memorization of state boundary lines and of counties within the states

In their daily lives, and especially on the job, people make extensive use of longhand. Thoroughly legible penmanship, therefore, should be required of all high school students. The need for a special form of penmanship has, of course, been proved to be not only unnecessary, but even undesirable. There certainly should be no attempt to achieve uniformity of handwriting in high school students. A person's handwriting may be distinctive and individual, but the ability to write legibly is an essential

The students' written and oral expression should be carefully diagnosed in the early years of their high school training. Those who have handwriting weaknesses, or who cannot express themselves readily—orally and on paper—should be given thorough remedial work

The important thing, of course, is that children learn to spell the words which they are going to use. Ability to spell cannot be ignored either in the elementary school or in the secondary school, but stress should be placed upon the words which children will actually use rather than merely using spelling as a means of discipline. The most frequently used 2,000 words and 5,000 words should be emphasized, and eventually the most frequently used 10,000 words for those who have the capacity and need for such a vocabulary. After basic learning, consideration should be given to the errors made by students, and these should be used as a basis for corrective instruction. Most efficient, of course, is correctional spelling at the time when children make mistakes and in situations in which the errors are significant. Under these conditions, spelling instruction not only will be effective, but will be meaningful and will result in mastery to the extent necessary

READING ABILITY

Business teachers do not always realize that inadequate learning is frequently traceable to poor reading ability. In bookkeeping, for example, many students have difficulty not so much in learning double entry as in understanding the unfamiliar language. Once they learn to read the language of bookkeeping and really grasp the meanings of the terms, many of the difficulties are eliminated.

There are two basic types of silent reading. In one type, called cursory reading, the reader does not try to grasp the meaning of every word but only the essential concept. The other form of silent reading is careful and exact. In the latter type, detailed attention is required in order to assimilate the complete thought. Most pupils practice the first class of reading. Indeed, cursory reading is a valuable tool. College students often fail because they lack this ability. On the other hand, much of the reading required in business must be careful and exact. Too often, students become habituated to cursory reading and cannot adapt themselves to careful reading. Teachers of business subjects should test their students in order to determine and correct their reading weaknesses so that otherwise competent pupils will not fail.

As in the other fundamentals, reading standards must be related to the student's needs and capacity. Nevertheless, a minimum should be insisted upon for those who graduate from the secondary school as business students. It must be realized, moreover, that not only those who take a formal business program, but also students who are given job training in business subjects are classed as business students by the community. The businessman does not tolerate arbitrary distinctions created by the high school.

While the business teacher can take care of minor improvement in reading deficiencies in particular subjects, the correction of major reading difficulties usually requires specialized skill not usually possessed by the business teacher.

WRITTEN AND ORAL EXPRESSION

Obviously, the ability to express oneself clearly, whether in writing or orally, is indispensable for success in business. No bookkeeper is completely trained until he knows how to make his statement clear, not only

obviously are not the answer. Careful diagnosis is necessary, and for difficult cases this means individual diagnosis by a competent worker. Twelfth-year required courses in arithmetic for business students are about as efficient as a shotgun used in the dark. Only by accident will they be effective. Every student who is enrolled in a remedial arithmetic program should be fully analyzed and standards of attainment should have been worked out in advance based upon the student's needs, interests, and capacity.

CONCLUSION

In each of the three basic processes—reading, writing, and arithmetic—there is need for greater concentration on the few vital elements. As to the organization of teaching, however, no definite formula can be given that will be applicable to all schools. In some cases, it is probably wise to set up special classes for teaching each fundamental skill. In other cases, the teacher of bookkeeping, shorthand, and other business subjects can employ remedial methods as he detects the need for them.

The latter procedure, however, has the disadvantage of often interfering with the usual classwork and may make the teaching of both the bookkeeping, if that is the higher level subject, and the remedial arithmetic unsatisfactory. In many schools, it will be possible to set up special remedial classes to which all students who have not attained a sufficient mastery of the fundamentals may be sent. The responsibility for sending students to the remedial classes should rest with the teachers of special subjects.

This arrangement for dealing with the fundamentals in secondary schools is not entirely theoretical. It has been used with success in several progressive schools. Administrators may declare that this procedure will upset the credit system and interfere with the formal organization of classes, but if the administrator is interested in the students, rather than in administrative simplicity, he will be able to adapt the proposed plan to the organization of the school.

The actual number of students who will need this supplementary form of remedial training in all the fundamental processes is probably small. It is most likely that one semester of specialized remedial training in one or two subjects will easily clear up the deficiencies in fundamentals for at least one half the students, for probably another 25 per cent, a full

year or possibly two years of remedial training and drill of one period a day will suffice. For a small number (those who intellectually are really not fitted for the secondary school, but who, because of physical maturity, must be placed in the secondary school) one-half and even two-thirds of the time should be devoted to remedial training in the fundamental processes.

It should not be assumed that this plan will act as a cure-all. In many small schools it will be difficult, and even unwise, to burden with additional assignments teachers who are already carrying six or seven classes. Some organized procedure, however, should be used to make sure that graduates are skilled in the fundamental processes, for, while the secondary school may blandly "pass the buck" to the elementary school, the businessman still continues to hold the secondary school responsible, and rightly so.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What should be the attitude of the high school teacher toward the work of the elementary school? Read at least three articles on teaching the fundamentals in the elementary school as a basis for giving a more understanding answer.

2. How effective is the teaching of the three R's in the schools at the present time? Do some observation of your own, talk with some business men. Read the results of current studies of achievement of elementary school children in the fundamental processes. Come to your conclusion on the basis of a consensus of the results of these sources.

3. Do you agree with the opinion that high school work in the fundamentals should be remedial rather than basic? Explain your answer.

4. Read Fernald or Betts mentioned in the selected readings or some other book on remedial instruction. Evaluate the discussion on remedial training given in these readings.

5. Is there a place for the formal teaching of grammar in the elementary school? In the high school? Why or why not?

6. How important is the ability to spell? Do not deal in generalizations but give specifics. Obviously, we all need to know how to spell some words and others few of us need to know how to spell. How much of an educated person's spelling competency should be acquired in school and how much by experience in post school life?

7. Give an answer for the question under item six as related to handwriting.

8 Why is reading ability so vital to the job and cultural competency of a really educated person? What can the business teacher do to develop better reading ability?

9 The salesman needs considerable competency in oral expression. How about the competency needed by the bookkeeper and stenographer?

10 What techniques can the business teacher use to improve competency in written and oral expression?

11 Some businessmen think that skill in arithmetic is the key to success in business. Why? How can the teacher of bookkeeping improve arithmetic skill? Does the teacher of shorthand have a responsibility in the improvement of arithmetic skill? The teacher of clerical practice?

12 Summarize what you think is the function of business education in the development of the fundamental processes

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CHAPTER V

Character Development and Business Education

CHARACTER TRAINING has always been considered a major aspect of business education. Businessmen say that it is not so important to teach technical skills as it is to develop good character in students. Even a casual survey of articles concerned with business education will reveal a tremendous amount of attention given to this subject. Businessmen, of course, define character in terms of those things for which they look in their workers. It is altogether probable that some businessmen might look upon a strong awareness of workers' rights on the part of an employee as a character failing. Note in the Charters and Whitley list of desirable secretarial traits according to businessmen, given on page 66, that a sense of humor, self respect, and fairness were among the traits considered least important.¹ Accuracy and responsibility were rated highest in importance, honesty rated about the middle.

It can be seen easily, therefore, that judgment of character traits is subjective. Nevertheless, since teachers are training students for jobs in business, which they will obtain in terms of their ability to satisfy the needs of prospective employers, these interests of businessmen must be considered. On the other hand, the school is supported not by business alone but by the entire community. Therefore, an intelligent balance must be maintained between the character objectives desirable from the

¹ Charters and Whitley, *Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits* Baltimore, Williams and Wilkins, 1924, p. 175 or

viewpoint of the businessman and those from the viewpoint of the entire community

Awareness of the importance of personal traits in business is not new, even 50 years ago mere skill was not sufficient Miss E M Bradley, addressing the *Business Educators Association of America* in 1889, pointed out that business teachers should give their students

hints or suggestions in regard to dress and neatness A large number of our pupils are ladies Some are careless and untidy in their appearance and others overdo and go to business places dressed more as would become a social entertainment Neither extreme is agreeable to a sensible business man Neatness without overdressing has helped many a young lady to get employment, and carelessness or elaborateness of costume, has prevented many a capable lady from getting the employment which otherwise she might have had²

Except for a slightly different manner of expression, this advice is just as pertinent today

PRESENT DEVELOPMENTS IN THE STUDY OF CHARACTER

Present understanding of the nature of character is exceedingly inadequate Research as to the nature of character—its causation and its evaluation, and methods of influencing it—are at the very margins of scientific procedure There seems to be reasonable evidence that there are certain primary traits such as dominance as opposed to subservience, independence as opposed to dependence, and hyper sensitivity as opposed to phlegmatism These blend and are interpreted by us into surface traits such as thriftiness, timidity, cheerfulness, impulsiveness, accuracy, and the like

Character study, however, has not gone beyond the point of vaguely distinguishing these primary traits from the surface traits As will be indicated a little later, business teachers in particular and schools in general are not equipped to cope with the intricacies of a person's character based as it is upon millions of influences

Even psychiatrists, who work with those with extreme personality deviations wherein traits are more gross and easily distinguished, often disagree in diagnosis and procedures for treatment Cure of insanity is

² *Business Educators Association of America Proceedings 1889 p 201*

TABLE 3. *Vocational Traits for Secretaries (Frequency Rating)*

<i>Trait</i>	<i>Number of times mentioned</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Trait</i>	<i>Number of times mentioned</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Accuracy	24	1	Executive ability	9	25
Responsibleness	23	2	Loyalty	9	25
Dependability	21	3	Pleasant voice	9	25
Intelligence	21	3	Orderliness	8	28
Courtesy	20	5	Grooming	8	28
Initiative	20	5	Alertness	7	30
Judgment	20	5	Drive	7	30
Tact	19	8	Ambition	6	32
Personal pleasantness	18	9	Curiosity	6	32
Personal appearance	18	9	Forcefulness	6	32
Interest in work	17	11	Foresight	6	32
Speed	17	11	Thoughtfulness	6	32
Reticence	16	13	Thoroughness	5	37
Adaptability	15	14	Willingness	5	37
Businesslikeness	15	14	Modesty (not conceit)	4	39
Neatness	15	14	Originality	4	39
Memory	14	17	Patience	3	41
Good breeding	13	18	Resourcefulness	3	41
Poise	11	19	Self-control	2	43
Self-confidence	11	19	Versatility	2	43
Graciousness	10	21	Fairness	1	45
Honesty	10	21	Self-respect	1	45
Health	10	21	Sense of humor	1	45
Industriousness	10	21			

often characterized by rule-of-thumb procedures and by trial and error, rather than scientific research and consequent treatment. Thus far, much of what we label as character traits defy scientific study except in the crudest sense. The result is that even the people who are otherwise careful about coming to conclusions render opinions and use techniques for treatment that can hardly be distinguished from charlatanism.

CHARACTER TERMS DEFINED

For the purpose of this discussion, a *trait* is a unit type of reaction, thus, thriftiness, honesty, faithfulness, and the like are traits. Character

is the sum total of all the traits a person possesses, plus the added quality that a person has as a result of the integration of these traits. Just as a house is an aggregation of bricks, but something else in addition, so, a person is more than the mere sum total of all his traits. That is why it is futile to attempt to teach individual traits as one would teach arithmetic. Traits are too ephemeral and too varied under different situations and changed emotional and physical conditions to be drummed in like so much factual learning. Teachers can get some help in character development from the skill and fact teaching techniques, but the whole teaching process requires a great deal of sympathetic understanding and must be far more indirect, the results cannot be measured with much accuracy. Nevertheless whether taught concomitantly or directly, whether primary or supplementary to school learning, character development is the most important object of the teaching process.

Sometimes, however, it is impossible to develop character directly. The character of even the most simple individual is so infinitely complicated and ramified that it is beyond the capacity of anyone to analyze completely the intricate causation for conduct and the possible remedial action that is necessary to correct trait expressions. Trait actions, moreover, that were labeled as incorrect only a few years ago are now considered quite acceptable and vice versa. The difficulties involved in character training cannot excuse the teacher from concern with it. Precisely because it is so important, and because the means of attaining it are so nebulous, the best efforts of the teacher must be devoted to it.

Some teachers who find certain pupils unusually shy or reserved may go out of their way to encourage them by giving them more opportunities to speak before the class, pointing out to them their deficiencies and giving them special consideration. They are then sometimes amazed that their efforts are not only futile but also harmful. On the other hand, other teachers will find that some of these apparent deficiencies will solve themselves. What teacher has not been surprised to find a student shy and positively inarticulate in class but a veritable chatterbox in the playground or on the campus?

THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT HAS A COMPLEX CHARACTER

By the time the student reaches the final year of senior high school or enters college, his character has been rather definitely developed. Indeed,

if some psychologists are correct, the broad outlines of character are molded in the first few weeks of life. All that the school can therefore do, even in the most elementary grade, is to correct the weaknesses that have developed. Whether this extreme point of view is entirely true or not, the fact remains that the various traits have already become fixed and all the teacher can do is to correct certain of the more obvious defects. Character training, therefore, in the high school, like training in the fundamentals, must be remedial.

A person who has developed good character traits will have a command of the traits especially adapted to business, for commercial activity is typical of other aspects of social life. A person is rarely honest, loyal, or businesslike in general for character traits are specific. He may be loyal under certain conditions and disloyal under others, honest under certain conditions and dishonest under others. It is, in fact, often difficult to make exact gradations of honesty and other character traits. A person who is unnecessarily outspoken in certain circumstances may pride himself on his honesty and integrity, others may classify him as blunt and even rude. Some persons may never tell a deliberate lie and yet fail to tell the whole truth. Others may deviate from the truth in minor details, but present the whole truth in order to make a judgment. Character training is a most subtle art. People do not agree on the shadings of character that are most desirable.

CHARACTER AND PERSONALITY

Businessmen, like all others, often confuse personality with character. In common parlance, as well as in the dictionary, the differentiation is vague. In general, character may be said to differ from personality in that personality emphasizes an individual's incidental or even superficial traits. Thus, a person may have a pleasant approach, enter into conversation easily, have a ready smile, and a good sense of humor. People are drawn to him, and he is said to have a pleasing personality. At the same time he may be fundamentally shiftless, lacking in industry, and be without a sense of responsibility. He is said to have a good personality but a weak character. In reverse, a person may not have a good front or good personality, if, however, he is unquestionably honest, faithful under all conditions, and conspicuously industrious, he is said to have a basically good character.

A person's reputation differs from his character in that it might be said that his character represents his true self and his reputation merely the estimate that others have made of his character. In the long run, the two are likely to be identical, but some persons either deliberately misrepresent, or unintentionally are unable to present, their true characters.

TRAITS DEMANDED BY BUSINESS

Businessmen seek varying forms of character traits in their employees depending on their business needs and on their personal interests. Indeed, among various business occupations there are qualitative and even quantitative differentiations of desirable character traits. Certain personality traits are highly important in salesmen and possibly less important in bookkeepers. Yet it is known that many salesmen succeed brilliantly in spite of obvious personality deficiencies. In fact, it is possible that they succeed because of these traits. Everyone concedes that a certain amount of aggressiveness (it might better be called sociability) is desirable in business.

Many studies, scientific in form if not scientific in result, have been undertaken. Knowledge in this area is rudimentary and it may never pass far beyond this level. Here is an abridged list³ of some of the traits that executives would like to find in their secretaries.

Dependability

- 1 Prompt and accurate in carrying out instructions
- 2 Available when her employer rings for her
- 3 Can be depended on to produce material or information when it is needed
- 4 Does not take sick leave unless she is really ill and arranges to take annual leave at the convenience of the employer in order not to interfere with the smooth running of the office
- 5 Works overtime if necessary
- 6 Does not repeat confidential information
- 7 Keeps materials arranged on the superior's desk so that more important matters are taken care of first

³ Adapted from Farm Credit Administration *The Instructor's Guide for a Secretarial Training Course* Washington D. C., 1947 p. 7

- 8 Takes care of all details that do not require superior's attention
- 9 Sees that all work that should be taken care of is finished before leaving for the day
- 10 Calls the employer's office when unable to come to the office in the morning
- 11 Places on employer's desk notes of calls that have come in during his absence
- 12 Is sure that file copies of letters prepared in other offices for her employer's signature are properly initialed before the letters reach him
- 13 Gets out work as promptly as possible
- 14 Is punctual
- 15 Is not a clock watcher
- 16 Works industriously without close supervision
- 17 Keeps informed regarding rules and regulations pertaining to the work of the organization

Intelligence

- 1 Makes an effort to understand instructions
- 2 Is able to figure things out for herself
- 3 Does not ask dumb questions
- 4 Is able to grasp contents of mail
- 5 Can write letters for boss's signature
- 6 Puts into her transcript of the dictation the dictator's intended meaning
- 7 Grasps the broad view of a problem
- 8 Welcomes criticism, always trying to improve and increase efficiency
- 9 Is able to understand quickly and accurately what the employer wants done
- 10 Is well informed regarding the functions and purposes of the division in which she works
- 11 Adapts easily
- 12 Understands problems which arise
- 13 Makes herself clearly understood in conveying her thoughts or suggestions to others
- 14 Can handle employer's accounts and personal affairs

Courtesy

- 1 Is pleasant at all times to all with whom she comes in contact, be it an important caller or a messenger
- 2 In telephone conversations, listens attentively, does not interrupt, and gives information willingly and pleasantly
- 3 In referring calls or callers to some other person or office, does so without showing irritation
- 4 Makes callers feel at ease
- 5 Even if the caller is not a particularly welcome one, is in no case rude or abrupt
- 6 Remembers her co-workers are human beings and treats them as she would wish to be treated
- 7 Does not interrupt anyone while talking without excusing herself
- 8 Says "good morning" and "good night" to her office associates

A complete list of these details is of considerable value to the secretarial teacher, because it indicates to him those situations that should be created in the secretarial classroom. For example, if employers wish their secretaries to ascertain that every letter is perfect before it is sent out, it would be wise to emphasize this character trait in the classroom. However, teachers must make certain that all employers do insist on this perfection before they demand it of their students. As a matter of fact, employers differ widely in their standards of mailability. Furthermore, if employers wish their secretaries to get the exact information requested, it is necessary for teachers to train their students to be exact. If the average employer expects stenographers to work out letters merely from an outline, then teachers should train prospective stenographers in that ability.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

The development of character traits requires a teaching process very similar to that used in inculcating knowledge. The teacher must, therefore, first discover what the student actually needs, so that his work may not be completely counteracted by some factor that is not considered. This determination of student need can be undertaken in many ways. Informal observation gives many evidences. If students are

chronically late, teachers have evidence of one possible deficiency. If students cheat, we recognize a possible trait deficiency. It must be realized, however, that businessmen do not live in a vacuum. Intelligent businessmen have learned to tolerate minor weaknesses. Therefore, students who are occasionally late might be treated as the businessman would treat an employee who was late for the first time in several months. Instead of being critical, he might sense the possibility of need for sympathy.

Most businessmen are very well aware of the phrase, "Lead us not into temptation," therefore, they do not unnecessarily tempt their employees by opportunities for dishonesty. Clerks and businessmen themselves not only accept audits of their work as necessary but even insist on them for their own and their co-workers' protection. Teachers who give students undue opportunity for cheating without first creating an environment to minimize the desirability of cheating are not teaching their students honesty but may, in fact, be developing a habit of dishonesty.

Teachers may find it desirable to pool their judgments about students in order to determine the character traits that need classroom retraining. Certain tests have been developed to measure personality traits. Unless these are used with care and with awareness of their comparatively low reliability, they may lead the teacher astray. A teacher may be aware of character trait deficiencies and yet find that the fault cannot be corrected in the school.

Character training in order to be effective, requires the resources of the whole community. When the school tries to pit itself against the influences of the entire community, it only makes a laughing stock of itself. Teachers who only a few years ago tried to prevent their senior girls from using nail polish were doomed to failure. The teacher with good judgment did not try to fight the trend, in fact, most of them sensibly succumbed quite rapidly themselves and taught girls how to use it correctly. Businessmen expect their employees to be typical—not atypical. Therefore, the students are at times far more aware than the teachers of what will pass in the business office, because they are often closer to the customs and practices of daily life.

After the cause of the character defect has been found (assuming that it is possible to discover it), the method of corrective procedure must be selected. The environment must be modified and correct practices de-

vised This requires careful planning Motivation must be developed To prevent losses in learning, while the trait as a whole is being developed, there must be variation, constancy of application, and careful observation Students must want to achieve the desirable trait A group of students was recently asked which of a given number of character traits they most wanted to achieve Sociability ranked highest, honesty lowest This shows where teachers need to place the greater emphasis in developing motivation In developing sociability, the motivation, though possibly disguised, is usually already created, whereas when teaching honesty, teachers must be exceedingly subtle in creating student motivation

PRACTICE IN DESIRABLE TRAITS

Plans must be put into operation, however, in order to succeed Much opportunity must be given for students to carry on their work in such a manner that desirable traits will be practiced automatically Obviously, teachers cannot set exercises in developing character traits in the same manner in which they can set an exercise in bookkeeping There are several ways in which desirable traits can be developed

1 The teachers can without any planned or conscious deliberation on the part of the authorities create such a very satisfactory environment that students automatically have desirable traits If those traits that are desired are uniformly rewarding in satisfaction while the undesirable traits uniformly have undesirable results, it is obvious that only desirable traits will be developed Such an ideal situation, however, does not exist This conclusion is based on the assumption that people are inherently neither good nor bad, but that they are good or bad in terms of the conditioning that they receive People tend to be tardy, not because they are natively malicious, but because they find the little extra sleep rewarding or because there are more interesting things to do on the way to school or because they find the schoolroom atmosphere unpleasant, or because of natural inertia If promptness is considered a desirable trait, then the environment must be such that the desirable trait will naturally result

2 The teacher may consciously plan to create an environment that will result in desirable traits but not plan it in a formal way

3 The teacher may set up definite plans for developing desirable traits but provide for attaining these traits entirely in out-of-classroom situations

4 Plans may be made for achieving desirable traits directly in the class

room but purely as concomitants to the learning of other subject matter and without an awareness on the part of students that they are learning desirable traits

5 Teachers may work for desirable traits in the classroom and deliberately tell the students their objective

6 Teachers may present formal courses whose primary purpose is character training other subject matter being concomitant to this primary objective

It will be noted that, in these six alternatives, there is a definite sequence from entirely indirect learning to completely direct learning as a procedure. None of these procedures is always the best one. If we lived in a perfect world in which teachers and schoolroom environment were also perfect, it would be unnecessary to use any procedure other than the first. Occasionally, a teacher will be found who is so great that almost spontaneously he will create near perfection in learning. Buddha, Jesus, Moses, Socrates, and St. Francis of Assisi, to mention outstanding examples, were such great teachers. Most teachers are average mortals, not much better, not much worse than the rest of us, and it will be agreed that the usual school environment is anything but elevating. Therefore, teachers must consciously plan in some degree for desirable trait formation if the school is to make any contribution. Why not, then, set up specific classes in character training in which trait development is the primary objective and other subject matter purely concomitant? This procedure has not infrequently been tried and has been almost always a failure.

As was pointed out before, character traits are too subtle to be achieved specifically. In spite of the best laid plans, they almost inevitably result in preaching, and preaching, even when very well done, becomes dull after a while. Moreover, no matter how realistic teachers attempt to be, the atmosphere soon becomes "namby-pamby," and teachers find themselves lost in creating situations that will be exercises in trait formation.

The business teacher, when instructing for the job, instinctively tries to create an environment that will result in the formation of desirable business traits. If the teacher does a good job of teaching business subjects in a thoroughly businesslike manner and as close to the actual business situation as possible, he has created a situation that is natural for the development of desirable traits. Pupils learn because they can

see an immediate value in the new knowledge, due to the fact that business teachers keep their work close to the actual business situation and carry on activities efficiently. Businessmen are orderly because they find it worth while to be orderly. Students of business learn to be orderly because they learn in an orderly environment. Businessmen are reasonably tolerant of each other and of their employees' failings, therefore, the classroom for training in business should also be characterized by a reasonable tolerance because it is the natural situation in business.

For the most part, character trait formation is a natural companion to effective subject matter teaching in business education. Supplementary to this involuntary learning, the teacher must also consciously plan his subject matter teaching so that it will emphasize those traits that he is especially anxious to have his students achieve. In developing tact in business situations, the teacher may decide not to set up exercises deliberately intended to help his students achieve tact. For example, he will suggest to his students that when asking their dictator how to spell the name "Smith" they will not show their ignorance if they will say "Does Mr. Smith spell his name S-m-i-t-h?" Such delicately planned training is usually far more effective.

When, however, concomitant procedures are not effective, the teacher should tell his students directly toward what he is working. In fact, sometimes such directness may be desirable. Most teachers believe that it is desirable for students to know what the lesson objective is in a particular training unit. So, in many cases, teachers may tell their students what they are striving for in developing traits. Specific punishment for failure to achieve desirable traits is sometimes the most effective device. Some teachers of character training consider negative training weak and therefore object to it. Many of the great codes of ethics, such as the Ten Commandments, have been set up as negative preachments. While people realize the extent to which the Ten Commandments are broken, they are also equally aware of their tremendous effectiveness as controls.

THE PROBLEM OF THE NEW STUDENT BODY

Those adolescent students who formerly dropped out of school, but who now remain, are often a problem to all concerned—to the teachers who must handle them, to the other students who find that they interfere with their learning, to the administration, and, most of all, to the students

themselves. This has greatly increased the problem of dealing with character development in the school. Because of the greatly increased enrollment, classes have been enlarged and discipline has frequently depreciated. In many cases, these students are not being permitted to take various forms of job training because these are obviously unsatisfactory for them. They, therefore, revert to various academic courses that are even less satisfactory for them. The worst part of this problem is the fact that there is no clear solution in sight.

Special vocational schools are proposed for these students, but the administrators in these schools often accept only those students who have job possibilities, and that leaves the general secondary schools to deal with those who do not have the temperament to be "school broken." Then, too, the equipment in the better type of vocational schools is too expensive and delicate to be used and abused merely to "keep 'em quiet." The development of new courses in consumer education, in homemaking, in industrial and other practical arts will mitigate, but will not solve the problem.

Very probably there is no single solution to the problem. Whoever can make even a small contribution toward the solving of this dilemma will be recognized as a great contributor to education, and, what is more important, in so doing he will have helped to ameliorate the plight of this segment of our youth.

ORDER BASIC TO GOOD SCHOOL LEARNING

Human beings adapt themselves to their environment. If this environment does not exemplify good order and taste, it fails to motivate them, and they are not likely to appreciate the need for good order. Similarly, unless students have experienced good order and organized activity in school they are not likely to respect the need for organized society and will fail to co-operate in it. In former generations, it was possible to acquire this type of respect for orderliness and good behavior in the home environment. The home was so large that it was necessary for the parents and elders to maintain good order, obedience, and discipline. Worth while experience normally came out of reasoned and needed obedience to the older generations. When, as is often the case at the present time, a child is brought up among adults, he tends to become the center of attention. Therefore, any experience the school can give

to offset this tendency and make the child realize he is not a unique individual will be helpful. So far as society is concerned, he is but one of many millions. He must learn to accept his place in the community and to realize not only that he has rights, but also that there are definite limitations to his rights. To that extent the school can make a primary contribution to good community living.

The school can be a participant in helping the student become adapted to the community in which he must live. Chaotic, disorganized running around in the schools, which encourages looseness of conduct rather than orderliness, is a perversion of the purposes of the school. The formal rote discipline of previous days certainly was not desirable, but the alternative now characteristic of some schools is even worse.

The office and the shop are necessarily conducted on a quite different basis from that of the classroom. It is futile to attempt an exact duplication. Office practice teachers almost invariably apologize for the amount of disorder and explain to visitors that "this is a change day" or something to that effect. When there are thirty students in the classroom, whereas an office of the same size would have only five or six employees, the conduct in both places greatly differs. People in the office, moreover, are doing work that they have usually mastered and are merely repeating, whereas in the classroom, as soon as work has been mastered, there is no value in continued repetition. Nevertheless, in numerous small ways, teachers can simulate job conditions. The office worker is not scolded every time he comes in late, but chronic lateness is given drastic treatment.

Office executives are becoming more and more conscious of the need for thinking through the human relations problems. Teachers must do the same in their job training classes. It is good form in some schools for students to be bold with their teachers. In some offices such conduct may be tolerated, but in most offices and stores, good manners are still at a premium. This does not imply subservieny or excessive shyness, but it also does not encourage excessive familiarity. In attempting to develop businesslike conduct in the school, the teacher must, however, realize that the school is not an office, therefore, when he attempts to imitate office conditions exactly, results are likely to be chaotic. Yet elementary school discipline also is undesirable.

School Discipline The school need not be regimented in formal military fashion to achieve a good learning environment. On the other hand

mob indiscipline, such as is found in some schools today, is also not the answer. The core of the problem is, of course, good classroom teaching. When a teacher has something definite to offer and knows what he is trying to get his pupils to learn, when he knows how to present the subject matter, and when he is genuinely interested in seeing to it that his students learn, good group attention is a logical resultant. Good order results from little opportunity for poor order. If we create situations leading to disorder, naturally disorder is an inevitable resultant.

Nevertheless, teachers should not confuse the goals toward which they are striving. Good order is an end in itself in a marginal way and can be best attained by good teaching. In the classroom, however, good conduct is necessary in order to do good teaching. Good conduct is a concomitant value resulting from worth while teaching, but this does not mean that good teaching results merely from good conduct. Some teachers assume that just because the class is well behaved that the students are doing their work. Actually the teachers have only created the situation that will give students the opportunity to do their work, and the proof of good teaching is how much the students have learned after doing that work.

FAILURE IN THE SCHOOL

As discussed in a preceding chapter, a significant misunderstanding of the purpose of the school is the assumption that students should not be allowed to fail, simply because failing in school will habituate students to the idea of failure. Therefore, in some schools a situation is created wherein everyone is passed in every grade. This is contrary to the preachings of those who call themselves progressive. When they say that the school should be as lifelike as possible, that it should be like the non school environment and then allow unlikelike situations, they are asking for failure. No person is an absolute success, no person is a complete failure. If he is permitted to believe that he shall always have success then the inevitable frustrations of everyday living will make him a failure.

TRIAL AND ERROR IN BUSINESS

When the student goes to work in an office or store he will be in competition with many others. He will almost inevitably face some fail

ures as well as successes. From these errors and successes the worker should gradually discover his relative aptitude among his co-workers and gradually achieve the place in the business community that his ability warrants. If he is over-ambitious and always attempts more than he can achieve, he will tend to be a constant failure. If he is so cautious that he never attempts anything unless he is sure in advance of success he will probably remain below his natural position.

APPLICATION AND INTEGRATION OF CHARACTER TRAINING

Obviously, unless students are deeply interested in developing a trait, the learning will not be very effective. We must provide an abundance of practice and sufficient variety, so that the trait becomes an integral part of the student's personality, otherwise, it will probably not be permanent. Unless a trait becomes an inseparable part of a person's character, it is not likely to function under all conditions. When there is a choice of action, an intelligent person not only shows that he has the desirable trait but that he also is aware of the principles governing his actions. This condition of awareness of conduct should be a goal of character training. The exact procedures for teaching business traits cannot be set down on paper. They cannot even be explained in all their intricate ramifications. Certainly no person can set up a pattern of character training that will work for him and his students and assume that other teachers can use it equally effectively. On the other hand, the mere fact that he has found certain procedures ineffective does not mean that they are ineffective with others. Some teachers apparently create desirable character traits in a pin drop-silence atmosphere, others may permit activity that borders on positive noisiness. Yet both may be creating desirable character traits.

CONCLUSION

The process of developing better character in students is fundamentally the same as that used in any other form of learning.

1. There should be motivation. Motivation is even more important in character development than in other fields because the essence of good character is less tangible than the essence of a specific skill such as in short hand, for example.

- 2 The purposes of teaching must be specific rather than general This element is particularly weak in most character development learning
- 3 The work at the high school level should be correctional
- 4 Definite learning projects are needed to achieve higher standards
- 5 Rewards and punishments are necessary
- 6 Some form of testing to measure success is a basic element
- 7 The learning must be integrated with the total learning program
- 8 The teacher must, himself, set and practice good standards of character if his teaching is to be effective
- 9 Anecdotal incidents help to stimulate interest and motivation
- 10 Lecturing about good conduct is usually futile and may actually be harmful A large amount and variety of practice in the use of the character trait being developed is an essential element in better character education

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 Why is character education considered so important to success in business?
- 2 Outline present concepts as to how a person develops his character
- 3 What is character? Personality? Reputation?
- 4 Ask several businessmen for their reaction to the school's work in character education Enter into a discussion to obtain not only their statement of weaknesses, but also to see how aware they are of the school's limitations
- 5 Comment in detail on the method of procedure for remedial work in personality development proposed in this chapter
- 6 Suggest a half-dozen specific types of practice that will help improve a particular business trait in which some students might be deficient
- 7 What is the function of co-operative training and other forms of work experience in attaining application and integration of character training?
- 8 What is the basic procedure that should be used in the classroom in developing character?
- 9 Give some specific activities that the business teacher can have his students undertake which will be of value in improving their character for purposes of job placement

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CHAPTER VI

Nature of Job Training for Business

JOB TRAINING, such as expertness in shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping, or operating office machines, is not sufficient preparation for earning a living, nor is a high school diploma, or even a college degree. The man who is most likely to forge ahead is the one who has both specific skills and a broad educational background.

The first thing a personnel manager asks a prospective employee is "What can you do?" The applicant without specific training answers, according to his nature "Anything you want me to," or "Nothing in particular." Neither answer is satisfactory.

The applicant with some definite vocational training is in a better position to give a satisfactory answer. When questioned in regard to his background, however, he, too, is likely to fail. The employer wants not only a good typist but also a person who can meet people successfully and deal intelligently with the thousand and one things that arise in the daily course of business life.

REQUISITES FOR VOCATIONAL SUCCESS

The young man or woman who wishes to utilize the business opportunities that arise and to use his first job as a basis for advancement should prepare himself at school in at least three different ways, each of which is a requisite for vocational success.

First, he should acquire a solid general educational background. This will give him, for example, the power to speak and write clearly, to

perform the fundamental arithmetical processes so necessary in business life, and to understand the meaning of current events it will provide him with that culture and understanding without which few people can hope to succeed

Second, he should acquire a general business comprehension of such subjects as economic geography, salesmanship, advertising, economics, and business law. These subjects should give him an understanding of the mechanism of business and enable him to appreciate the relationships between his job and that of other workers, both in his firm and elsewhere. Such subjects not only should help him to obtain his first job but should also be invaluable for advancement.

Finally, he should obtain some specific job training. Employers, today, want workers who can do several things tolerably well and at least one thing exceptionally well.

It is a mistake to assume that in a country like the United States it is merely necessary to count the number of workers in each occupation and then calculate the yearly occupational mortality in order to determine the number of new workers needed. Inherent economic instability makes this impossible.

Many other factors, including wars and depressions, so greatly influence the turnover of workers in specific occupations that it is impossible to make forecasts sufficiently exact for use as a basis for occupational training. Even the autocratic countries of the world, where control of the economic structure is highly centralized, find it difficult and often impossible to make such calculations.

Scientific changes are far too rapid these days to predict the number of workers in a given occupation even for a short period ahead. An invention may create opportunities for thousands of new workers and close opportunities for thousands of others. In many cases the work created is so different from the work eliminated that transition from one occupation to another is not successful. Fashions change so rapidly that even style experts find it difficult to estimate the next season's mode. How, then, can teachers, except in very round figures, estimate the number of persons needed for specific occupations? Even if teachers did know, Americans will insist on acting as individuals and will not let themselves be railroaded, even for their own good, into occupations that are estimated to be fruitful areas of employment, or to be sidetracked from those which are considered less likely to be successful.

Some students of occupations assume that it is necessary only to fully publicize the changes that are occurring, and then people will automatically do what is good for them

Only over long periods of time does this tend to be true As has been pointed out, anyone who makes occupational prognostications, except in very broad terms, is likely to find himself justifiably classified as a charlatan This difficulty is true for those occupations for which specific job training can be given, as well as for those for which such training is not feasible Educators should realize that the schools cannot remake the occupational life of the nation but can only help in doing so Hence, on the secondary school level at least, definite vocational training can be given only to a comparatively small number of students with the expectation or hope that such training will result in employment

NEED FOR BETTER OCCUPATIONAL PLANNING

The inability to determine with any degree of exactitude what types of occupations students will enter is, in part, a characteristic ineptitude in the present economic system If more adequate statistical data were available, they would be of considerable aid in overcoming this lack in planning

In order to obtain the facts necessary for a better forecast of the occupational situation in the country, it will be necessary among other things to get the following types of data

- 1 A well-organized list of all kinds of work done This in itself is a tremendous job, for people will not always adequately describe their jobs Some find it difficult to do so Many unconsciously exaggerate the level of their work For example, a changemaker will call himself a cashier, a bookkeeper, an accountant, and a stenographer, a secretary Moreover, many persons have combination jobs A bookkeeping teacher may be an accountant on the side, a physician may teach preventive medicine, and a lawyer may maintain a farm

- 2 Occupational experts should determine as far as possible the number of persons engaged in each job or combination of jobs The same difficulties involved in making a classified list apply to the problem of determining the number who are engaged in each occupation

- 3 The number of new workers required in each job should be determined on a periodic basis, possibly in terms of years When is a person

a new entrant—when he gets a job or when he wants a job? If the latter, when he really wants a job or when he thinks he wants one?

4 Job requirements should be determined These should include, among other things, the length and type of training necessary, desirable personality traits, and the amount of experience, if any, in a preparatory occupation Persons differ widely in their judgments as to the amount of training required for a given occupation For example, some people think that too much school training is required for physicians, others think that the requirements are utterly inadequate It is probably true that if persons with differing points of view first agreed on terminology, many of their apparent differences would be resolved Nevertheless, people will continue to think in terms of their individual appraisals of situations

In terms of these four factors, some forecast as to the job possibilities in each type of occupation can probably be made, provided the forecaster is fully aware of the sociological, economic, and technical factors that might warp these conclusions Full allowance must also be made for opportunities to transfer from one occupation to another with little or no training On this basis a tentative conclusion can be drawn as to whether too many or too few persons are training for a given occupation

The United States Employment Service has made considerable effort to determine the nature and scope of occupations in the United States Over 17,000 occupations have been definitely listed and many of them defined About 1,500 of these seem to be in the area of business A listing of some of these occupations and definitions will be given in the chapter concerned with the major categories of business Nevertheless, the designations are not too clear, they overlap, they sometimes duplicate, and, most serious of all, they fail to give consideration to dual services of which there are innumerable examples Moreover, as has been indicated, it is hardly possible to recognize the many instances wherein people have two or even more occupations The solution of this problem may be in determining the importance, by degree, of the several responsibilities

Furthermore shortages and surpluses must first be fixed before they can be studied Economic determinism still plays an important part in supply and demand of workers Labor leaders sometimes talk about a surplus of workers at the same time that industrialists complain about a distressing shortage of skilled labor Both fail to define their terms as to

when a laborer is skilled and under what conditions he is willing to work for a given salary. When persons talk about a labor shortage, under certain conditions they mean that employers are unwilling to pay the money required to induce additional persons to seek employment. When they speak of labor surpluses, they mean usually that workers are unwilling to accept salaries low enough to obtain employment. It is also realized that this easy adjustment of supply and demand in terms of wage levels is handicapped or at least stratified, by labor union edicts. These may be very desirable, but they do limit the flow of supply and demand as a vehicle for the adjustment of occupational supply to occupational demand.

In most business occupations, labor unions have not seriously impeded the flow of workers induced by higher or lower salaries. The mere fact that many girls have been brought up on the notion that shorthand is the best form of transitional occupation to their ultimate occupation of homemaker results in a flow of potential workers toward stenography, whether they are needed at the immediate moment or not. In like manner, young men who have set their minds upon clerical work as a steppingstone to business service cannot readily reconcile themselves to working in a lumberyard merely because the occupational picture has changed.

STUDENTS PREFER SPECIFIC VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS

Although the secondary school can supply technical training to only a small group, almost all students desire some kind of specific vocational education. This is especially true during a period of depression when people are inclined to take vocational courses (although the chances of their obtaining jobs are relatively slight) in preference to other courses, no matter how valuable these may be culturally or otherwise.

This means that students gravitate toward those courses in which business education is provided and that more boys and girls take stenography and bookkeeping than there are available stenographic and bookkeeping positions. On the other hand, pupils are not interested in distributive training or in general office work because they can find little evidence that the abilities they might acquire in these courses will help them to obtain jobs.

For this reason, also, it is difficult to persuade pupils to try other occupational training than that offered by the business department. They fail to see that home-economics and industrial-arts courses might also lead to specific jobs. Often, the latter subjects interest the pupils because they are more valuable for personal reasons than the traditional academic courses, but they continue to regard these courses as having little job getting value.

Furthermore, a certain prestige adheres to office work, and the fallacy persists that it always serves as a steppingstone to more remunerative vocations. This may have been true a generation or two ago, but it is less true today. Actually, factory employment, in many cases, offers superior income and better promotional opportunities than office work. Nevertheless, students persist in trying to qualify for secretarial and business occupations although they are far better fitted for industrial employment. Business occupations often lead to a blind alley, and secretarial-school students should be made aware of this fact.

One of the outstanding difficulties of writers in the field of business education is that they look for too high a degree of efficiency. Social life by its very nature is never highly efficient. Job training in all phases of vocational activity, like business education, also will tend to be partly, rather than absolutely, efficient. Business teachers are criticized because many of their students do not find jobs in the field for which they are trained. However, when the number of persons who actually get jobs in commercial occupations, because of their business training, is compared with the number who get jobs in other fields, because of their vocational school learning, the relative efficiency of business education becomes apparent. The schools of this nation must not be judged merely by their failure to achieve absolute literacy and perfect characters, but also by the great contributions they have made to literacy and the extent to which they have constructively molded our national traits.

TERMINOLOGY OF TRAINING LEVELS

The vocabulary of vocational education is not uniform. As was pointed out before, the word "duty" as used by Charters and Whitley does not have the same meaning as the word used in this presentation. In fact, the confusion of terminology is a reason for the inability to organize

when a laborer is skilled and under what conditions he is willing to work for a given salary. When persons talk about a labor shortage, under certain conditions they mean that employers are unwilling to pay the money required to induce additional persons to seek employment. When they speak of labor surpluses, they mean usually that workers are unwilling to accept salaries low enough to obtain employment. It is also realized that this easy adjustment of supply and demand in terms of wage levels is handicapped, or at least stratified, by labor union edicts. These may be very desirable, but they do limit the flow of supply and demand as a vehicle for the adjustment of occupational supply to occupational demand.

In most business occupations, labor unions have not seriously impeded the flow of workers induced by higher or lower salaries. The mere fact that many girls have been brought up on the notion that shorthand is the best form of transitional occupation to their ultimate occupation of homemaker results in a flow of potential workers toward stenography, whether they are needed at the immediate moment or not. In like manner, young men who have set their minds upon clerical work as a steppingstone to business service cannot readily reconcile themselves to working in a lumberyard merely because the occupational picture has changed.

STUDENTS PREFER SPECIFIC VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS

Although the secondary school can supply technical training to only a small group, almost all students desire some kind of specific vocational education. This is especially true during a period of depression, when people are inclined to take vocational courses (although the chances of their obtaining jobs are relatively slight) in preference to other courses, no matter how valuable these may be culturally or otherwise.

This means that students gravitate toward those courses in which business education is provided, and that more boys and girls take stenography and bookkeeping than there are available stenographic and bookkeeping positions. On the other hand, pupils are not interested in distributive training or in general office work because they can find little evidence that the abilities they might acquire in these courses will help them to obtain jobs.

For this reason, also, it is difficult to persuade pupils to try other occupational training than that offered by the business department. They fail to see that home economics and industrial arts courses might also lead to specific jobs. Often, the latter subjects interest the pupils because they are more valuable for personal reasons than the traditional academic courses, but they continue to regard these courses as having little job getting value.

Furthermore, a certain prestige adheres to office work, and the fallacy persists that it always serves as a steppingstone to more remunerative vocations. This may have been true a generation or two ago, but it is less true today. Actually, factory employment, in many cases, offers superior income and better promotional opportunities than office work. Nevertheless, students persist in trying to qualify for secretarial and business occupations although they are far better fitted for industrial employment. Business occupations often lead to a blind alley, and secretarial school students should be made aware of this fact.

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a clear presentation of the levels of vocational training. It will be noted that the word "job" was not used as one of the segments in the hierarchy previously presented. This was done because the term "job training" is used indiscriminately for any and all of these steps.

In spite of the fact that teachers are not agreed about the names for each of these levels, the levels are there just the same. Of course, not all these levels will exist in every case. In some cases, an occupation and a duty are synonymous, in others, there is only one step in an operation. It is evident, therefore, that this breakdown of the steps in vocational training must be fitted to the job needs, rather than be used arbitrarily. In some cases there are only three or even four levels, in other cases, it is necessary to develop additional levels of training.

In vocational training, teachers have talked and written recklessly about job analyses and failed to distinguish between occupational analyses, duty analyses, and operations analyses. Course of study makers, for instance, talk about making a job analysis of the work of the secretary, while they are actually making an analysis of the operations undertaken and mixing in a few duties.

Another difficulty is experienced by business teachers in the failure to distinguish between training for an occupation and training for a specific position in an occupation. For example, when a girl is trained to become a stenographer, the training needed in any position should be considered. Subsequently, after she has obtained a particular position, there is further need for training on that specific job. Teachers can, therefore, train a stenographer how to take dictation in school, but the ability to take dictation from an individual who has idiosyncrasies in his dictation procedures must be acquired on the job—probably learned by the stenographer without much aid. All the school can do is to give the stenographer the ability to make such adaptations herself.

It is realized that in some cases none of the steps in a particular operation can be effectively taught before assignment. All training, therefore, must be given on the job. In other cases, all training can be given in school and little, if any, specific adaptation is necessary. For instance, if the typist is to do purely routine copying of a highly standardized and rather simple nature, it may be possible to assign her to production immediately with little specific instruction. This would be especially true if job specifications are written out in office manuals, as they are in some organizations.

CONFUSION OF PART AND WHOLE IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING

One assumption of vocational teachers, frequently erroneous, is that they can teach all duties of a particular occupation merely because they can teach some of the duties of this occupation. A second assumption is that they can give school training for all occupations merely because they can train for some occupations. Some occupations must be learned entirely on the job, and, if any of the job-teaching is undertaken, it must be indirect. This holds true also of certain duties within given occupations. Some occupations and some duties within occupations can be taught, but must be taught entirely at the work bench or office desk. Other occupations and duties within occupations can be taught entirely on an off the job basis. This does not justify the assumption that all occupations and duties within occupations can be so taught.

The secondary school is not justified in giving training which is overly narrow and specific. Workers succeed, not so much because of specific technical ability, but because of their capacity to adapt themselves to changing conditions and to the constant variety of personalities with whom they must work. In the high school it will become increasingly important to develop in students skills and abilities that will be of value in a whole series of related occupations, rather than one limited aspect of an occupational area. It is recognized, for example, that the ability to type material that is usable in business is a highly desirable skill, not only for the potential stenographer but also for those who go into many other types of occupational life, some of them only distantly related to specific business activities.

It may be repetitious to stress again the value of a good nonspecialized education that creates in the student a higher degree of dependability, greater effectiveness in the use of English, and a higher standard of accuracy in arithmetic. This fact is, nevertheless, so important and so frequently forgotten that constant repetition is necessary. Specialized training should, if possible, be given either by the school, by the employer, or by co-operation of both just before the student enters upon employment.

It is futile to attempt to make a student a highly competent craftsman in the secondary school or even on the junior-college level. Even the private business school, which is uniquely competent to render this

service, rarely is foolish enough to suggest that it is producing stenographers who are master craftsmen. The high school can make a contribution to job training by enabling boys and girls to acquire their job training more quickly and more thoroughly than they could otherwise do. The school can make a contribution toward making it possible for workers to shift from one job to another when the exigencies of economic need require it, or when promotional opportunities are limited in a given job. There is quite general agreement on this point of view. Even those who consider themselves strictly vocational trainers completely agree that a good program of general education, possibly better labeled non-specialized education, is the basis for any effective program of vocational education.

MASTERY VERSUS ACQUAINTANCESHIP IN JOB TRAINING

One of the perennial discussions arising among theorists in business education is the problem of whether business students need a wide acquaintanceship with many skills or a mastery of one. The answer is simple—they need both.

The prospective employee who has mastered a specific skill needed on the job, such as typewriting, stenography, calculating machine proficiency, and bookkeeping machine proficiency, has an open sesame to business employment as compared to the untrained worker. Therefore, the continued insistence of all those who know the demands of beginning employment, that secondary school graduates who must get jobs have at least one job skill attained at real job standards. This means ability to perform as required on the job rather than with the 60 per cent proficiency required for passing a course in school.

The businessman, however, wants much more than a single skill for job satisfaction. The stenographer does many things in addition to taking dictation and transcribing. She often makes ledger entries, serves as receptionist, and sometimes even as a participant in the sales process. The young man hired as a bookkeeper often spends little office time making pen-and-ink bookkeeping entries. He undertakes numerous clerical duties and often is asked to operate an adding machine, calculating machine, and even bookkeeping machine, during lunch hours, or while the regular operator is out ill, or during vacation. The young

salesman who does not keep his records carefully is often unsuccessful regardless of how well he handles his customers

The businessman thinks that all these other skills require is common sense and willingness to do. He does not expect mastery performance. The businessman is shrewd enough to know that the beginning worker cannot undertake all the many office operations on a mastery level. He does not expect this, but he does expect the beginning worker to be able to undertake these operations on a substitute basis. He assumes that they are just a matter of common intelligence and interest in work. If the newly employed worker is completely unfamiliar with a calculating machine, which involves what are to the boss very simple operations, he considers his new employee stupid or unwilling. He is familiar with all the operations of the office, and, therefore, he assumes that some ability in all these simple (to him) operations is just common sense and intelligence.

Fortunately, the school, if it is properly organized, can develop these many acquaintanceship processes in the classroom with little additional effort. Training in the typical office operations, in addition to mastery in one office operation, is a *must* for successful office job training. The school that gives its prospective job seekers acquaintanceship skills in the basic business operations and in the most frequently used office machines has given its students a maximum training for a job situation. Good job training requires mastery proficiency in one job skill and usable skill in all the fundamental office operations and equipment.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is the nature of job training for business?
2. Why is there need for better occupational planning?
3. Why do students prefer specific vocational subjects as opposed to the often more highly prized cultural subjects?
4. Differentiate between "duty," and "job" in dealing with vocational education. How does an "operation" differ from a "duty"? How does a "step" differ from an "operation"?
5. To what extent does the complexity of an occupation influence the validity of job training for the occupation in the school?
6. What is meant by "part" versus "whole" learning in vocational education?

7 Mastery is fundamental to all good learning yet in this chapter justification is given for acquaintanceship training for certain job purposes Do you think acquaintanceship training is justified?

8 What kind of training for business occupations can be most satisfactorily given in the school?

9 What is marginal vocational education? What is its place in the high school?

10 There is no sharp differentiation between job training and cultural training What are the degrees of difference that you can justify?

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CHAPTER VII

Organization of Job Training for Business

AS STATED in Chapter I, business training was mainly vocational when it was first introduced in the public high schools in the early part of the century. Since then it has, more or less, remained static, while actual business conditions have changed radically. Two theoretical paths by means of which business education can train the student in actual methods of present day business life will be presented here. These two paths—which, for the sake of differentiation, will be called the “parallel” plan and the “drop-out” plan, respectively—are offered by way of contrast.

THE PARALLEL PLAN FOR JOB TRAINING

In the parallel plan, a certain amount of job training is given simultaneously with general education courses. Each year the vocational courses become increasingly intensive, in preparation for those of the ensuing year. For example, in the ninth year, when the student is about fifteen years of age, he might take a course in junior business education. Such training will help the young student to obtain part time work if he wishes it and will be a foundation for further job training.

In the tenth year, the student might take typing, bookkeeping, or other slightly more advanced business subjects. Instead of five periods a week, the vocational work might be increased to eight or ten periods. If the student leaves school at the end of the tenth year, he will be in a better position to obtain his first job than without such training. Should he

continue in school, this training will serve as a basis for courses in later years.

The eleventh year student would take a still more advanced phase of occupational training, for which, presumably, the work of the first two years has prepared him. The same process will be repeated in the twelfth year and would be duplicated at a more advanced stage at the collegiate level of instruction.

Raising the age of initial employment obviously delays the beginning of occupational preparation. This, however, does not change the fundamental purpose of the parallel program.

Fallacies in the Parallel Plan There are a number of fallacies in this program. First, it is questionable whether the schools are equipped to give specific vocational training for a considerable number, or even any, of those jobs labeled as junior business occupations. Second, there is no evidence that work taken on a junior level has significant value as a basis for more advanced training. Third, it is difficult to prove to anyone, and to high school students in particular, that a given amount of additional education will enable a person to obtain employment in a somewhat more advanced occupation. Fourth, it is difficult to place the teaching of vocational skills definitely in a specific grade in the secondary school. Although some excellent techniques have been developed for grade placement of subject matter, these devices are unsatisfactory in vocational learning.

THE DROP-OUT PLAN OF JOB EDUCATION

The drop-out plan for occupational training in the public schools contrasts strongly with the parallel plan. According to the drop-out plan no specific job training would be given until the student must leave school. Then the student will be given as much specific job training as possible in the remaining time he is able to remain in school, in order to provide him with the best possible opportunity for vocational placement. If a student can stay in school for a year, he is given thorough preparation in a certain type of job that presumably would make it possible for him to obtain employment when the year is over. If the student can stay in school for only two weeks or a month, he is given such preparation as the time allows for a full time job commensurate with his preparation.

Fallacies in the Drop-out Plan Theoretically, the drop out plan should keep children in school as long as possible. Actually, where this procedure is used, many students deliberately curtail their schooling in order to be able to take the intensive vocational work that, in their comparative immaturity, they consider to be the only worth-while training offered by the school.

Furthermore, students cannot, as a rule, remain in school when the need for supplementary earnings confronts the family. Also, it is difficult to provide the student with the type of job training that will dovetail with the amount of time at his disposal. A student's capacity may warrant a year of training, while economic pressure may allow him only a month. Conversely, a student may have a year in which to obtain his vocational training, while his capacity may warrant only a month of it.

Finally, many students, after they have been given this preparation, find it difficult to obtain the jobs for which they have been trained. Furthermore, the lure of employment often wanes when students are faced with an actual job, and they return to school and resume their education. Since specific vocational training is largely on a skill level, much of it is forgotten unless it is put to use, and, therefore, considerable effort is wasted. When the student is finally ready for occupational life, he frequently must be retrained.

NEITHER PLAN ENTIRELY ADEQUATE

Each of the suggested plans has a valuable contribution to make to the program of vocational education, although neither is entirely adequate in the usual school situation.

Many difficulties are encountered in the organization of vocational work. Most of them arise because, under present economic conditions, it is impossible to give definite vocational training for a majority of the occupations now available in the United States. Neither is it possible to indicate clearly the proportion of students and jobs for which specific education can be made available. It is probable that less than 50 per cent of the students can be given such training.

In many occupations no specific vocational ability is required, therefore, no specific job training can be given. These are occupations in which industriousness, fundamental good nature, and similar qualities are the requisites, rather than specific ability. In most occupations in

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which specific ability is needed and training therefore required, the ability is such that it can be acquired only on the job. Consequently, the school is unable to participate effectively in such training.

Business teachers, as well as other vocational trade teachers, undoubtedly have a specific obligation to see to it that this on the job training is well done, but this obligation can be fulfilled only indirectly. They must see to it that the job instructors are adequately trained to teach. Possibly the most startling discovery in vocational education resulting from World War II was the complete inability of most supervisors to give adequate instruction. In providing on-the-job training in the next few years, the greatest opportunity for service will probably be found in business education. Even in many occupations for which it is felt that school training can be given, such as distributive education, the leaders in business and vocational education have been shrewd enough to insist that such school training be parallel to actual job experience. Coupled with this, there is an awareness that the closer the job experience to the school learning, the more effective will be the school learning.

TYPES OF OCCUPATIONS FOR WHICH JOB TRAINING IN SCHOOLS SEEMS APPROPRIATE

Early in this chapter the fact was brought out that training for all types of occupations cannot be given on an equally satisfactory basis in the secondary schools. The following criteria will help to set off courses suitable for inclusion in the school curriculum from those that are unsuitable.

- 1 The occupational preparation should have a considerable amount of intellectual content and should stress the acquisition of knowledge and the development of judgment. Occupational training that consists merely in acquiring increased speed in some repetitive process is less suitable for inclusion in the secondary school program.

- 2 The acquired skill should be applicable to a variety of occupational situations. If the training is limited to the development of competence on a single piece of machinery, it does not belong in the curriculum.

- 3 The student should have an opportunity soon after leaving school to enter the occupation for which he is prepared. Preparation for a job open only to persons of mature years or of long experience in the industry is out of place in the high school.

4 The program should produce in the learner a satisfactory degree of attainment that will be recognized as such by the employer. One of the inadequacies of distributive training, for example, is that employers often do not recognize the value of such preparation.

5 The social desirability of the occupation should be beyond question.

6 The program should appeal to a sufficient number of young people to make instruction economical. There are literally thousands of occupations that employ only a small number of workers. Obviously, it would be impossible for the schools, even in the largest population centers, to offer specialized preparation for such occupations.

7 Theoretically, the schools can give their training in packages of any size. Actually, it is rather difficult to set up job-training programs that take only a week or two in the typical public school training program. Even the private school is usually reluctant to give this limited program of training. Some private business schools have advertised that "shorthand can be learned in thirty days." When the students enrolled, usually they found that the period of training required was multiplied several times. Even the specialized company schools that teach the use of book-keeping machines demand a minimum of six to eight weeks.

There are many jobs that can be learned in a short time. However, when the training period is so short that the problems of recruitment, fitting the training into the school program, and providing for immediate placement are such that they may counterbalance the effectiveness of the actual training received, administrators of vocational training must be exceedingly cautious about including such a training program in the school. Proposals have been made, for instance, that the school system set up training programs of one week or one month (for high school graduates) in the work of a receptionist in the operation of a small switchboard, and in the operation of a duplicating machine. The validity of such a suggestion is open to serious question. These are general types of business abilities and, as such, they can be easily integrated into all or most of the business curricula that may be offered in the high school.

PHASES OF THE VOCATIONAL LADDER

Vocational progress is marked not only by preparatory training but also by continuance of training, either on or off the job. Such phases of development include

1 Before trainees can profit by any vocational education, they must acquire the fundamentals of education required for all social living. This has already been discussed in detail elsewhere.

2 The prevocational phase of vocational education is largely one of guidance. It gives the prospective trainee an understanding of the nature of the occupation and helps him, his teachers, and his parents to decide on which family of occupations and sometimes on which specific occupation he should concentrate his learning. Certain aspects of a vocational field may be given in this area. Junior business training is a good example of a prevocational course. It has a very considerable element of guidance as its objective, besides stressing general educational values and also including certain phases of training for business.

3 Preservice vocational training is highly useful and quite effective for certain occupations. Shorthand is an occupation for which preservice training can be given most effectively. This is a great advantage for the occupation, as well as for its preparation in school. It is also a serious disadvantage, because many people realize training can be given on a preservice level and therefore their numbers disrupt the normal ratio of workers to jobs.

4 When a firm hires workers, they are often given a certain amount of preassignment training. In large department stores, for example, prospective salespersons are given one, two-, or three-day instructional programs in a vestibule school before being put behind the counter.

5 In-service training is often given when people are on the job. Salespersons are often given in-service training in order to upgrade their work if they have not reached the proper sales quota or if further training seems needed to increase their sales. The distinction between in-service training and preassignment training should be quite clear.

6 Refresher training on a preassignment basis is provided for those persons who have at one time possessed certain job skills but have lost them and now seek employment in the same occupation. Sometimes the refresher training may be given along with the preservice or preassignment training. When possible, however, it should be given separately because these persons already have some background and merely need refreshment in their skills.

7 Presupervisory training may be given to those workers who have developed on the job and who possess those characteristics that are likely to make them good supervisors. They may be given several hours

a week of training to fit them for supervisory work, either during or after working hours

8 In service supervisory training may be given to supervisors who need or feel the need for improving their supervisory skills after they have been appointed to at least the first line of supervisory service

9 A form of refresher training on an in-service basis may be given when workers seem to have lost their skills Stenographers often lose their ability to take dictation at high rates of speed simply because they receive dictation at comparatively slow rates Yet, to become a secretary, higher speeds may be needed Thus, they feel the need for maintaining their skill through periodic retraining

10 Administrative or managerial training has not yet been adequately developed on an on-the-job or even prejob basis It is usually given in collegiate schools of business, entirely separated from the actual occupational situation In the future there will be undoubtedly a considerable increase in managerial training directly concerned with a specific business It may be provided on a preassignment, in service, or refresher basis

It is important for teachers to realize these different phases of the vocational ladder They should determine at which step of the ladder they are doing their teaching If they realize that they are teaching purely on the prevocational step, they will not attempt to train for highly specific job needs If they are training at the in service level, they will not attempt to give their trainees awareness of all the economic implications of what they are learning

Teachers who have one month or less to refresh students in stenography, for example, often spend much of their time teaching formal grammar, shorthand theory, or in building up high speeds in typing, thus neglecting specific job skills This, in a very broad sense, may be desirable, but in the one month or less at their disposal, they are supposed to develop certain specific job skills in their students This is what they are hired to do, and it is on this basis that they and their students will be measured rather than on the broader implications If the trainees are found deficient in English usage, they should be given remedial instruction rather than formal grammar There should, moreover, be some balance between the amount of time spent on remedial work and on adapting skills to the job needs

All steps of the vocational ladder are important None should be

avored at the expense of the others Teachers cannot, however, train for all at one time A training program should be specifically directed toward one of these steps, properly designated, thus teachers and students would not become confused by an attempt to accomplish all steps at one effort

THE HIERARCHY OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING

One of the serious weaknesses of certain aspects of job training is that some phases of the work are taught, but not all elements of the job A cause for this is our failure to recognize that there is a definite hierarchy of levels in job training. These levels are

1 *Background Vocational Training* Most general is the basic background understanding of occupational life needed by all These learnings as a phase of vocational education have already been considered They should be taught to all, because all are directly and indirectly concerned with occupational life The content of these training programs must be determined by analyses of the activities and attitudes that are needed in order to carry on our occupational lives successfully The development of good work habits would be one of these learnings The ability to get along with others is another An understanding of supply and demand of workers in given occupations, as it affects us individually, would be a third

2 *Training for a Field of Occupations* The acquisition of learnings that concern a major grouping of occupations, such as business, is another element At this level of training business education has not been particularly effective Certain courses, such as business law, economics, and introduction to business, are often required of business trainees Whether these particular courses meet all the needs and whether all the elements in these courses are required is a moot question This problem requires more careful research and more careful thinking The determination of the content of such training should be based on studies of those understandings and abilities needed in all business occupations, such as ability to write an effective business letter, ability to promote an undertaking and an understanding of the degree of faith that is necessary and desirable in business enterprise

3 *Training for a Specific Occupation* The training of the stenographer, the dictaphone operator, the personal secretary, and the general

bookkeeper or accountant come at this third level. Toward this end, teachers have attempted to allocate most of their job training in business education. In some cases these endeavors have been only moderately successful, in others, almost spectacular. In some training, however, teachers persist in giving learnings that are now outmoded, and in other cases, they fail to give training for newer occupations, which can and must be given in the school.

4 Duties Requiring Training In most occupations there are several groupings of work, as in the case of the stenographer whose duties involve taking care of the correspondence, keeping the office orderly, serving as receptionist, and so forth. This area of training can usually best be determined by grouping together the units in the next more specific category. They often serve as convenient units for organizing learning.

5 Training in Specific Operations Each duty is made up of specific operations. For example, handling correspondence involves (a) opening letters, (b) gathering information needed by the employer to give dictation, (c) taking dictation, (d) rewriting a letter after certain corrections have been made, and (e) mailing the letter. These operations may be determined by an analysis of the actual work of the stenographer. What Charters and Whitley found in their analysis of secretarial duties and traits was, for the most part, a list of 871 operations rather than what they called duties. Nevertheless, in some cases, Charters and Whitley listed duties with operations and even, in some instances, included specific steps in each operation in the list.

6 Operations Consist of a Series of Steps The operation of mailing a letter, for instance, may be made up of the following steps: (a) folding a letter, (b) inserting it in the envelope, (c) sealing the letter,¹ (d) affixing a stamp or using the Mailomat, (e) putting the letter in the outgoing box. These are the foundation steps which good teaching will present. They are determined by careful observation and study of the worker on his job. Teachers in business education have been rather weak in these detailed studies. Careful analyses of the various operations undertaken in business occupations should be made so as to determine correctly the steps involved. For these steps it is usually desirable also to determine the key points involved. For example, when begin-

¹ If only a few letters are mailed, simple procedures may be used.

ning to transcribe a letter, it is necessary for the stenographer to plan carefully the placement of the letter. Because teachers often fail to emphasize these key points, students, even after they are on the job, persist in presenting poorly placed letters and assume they are mailable merely because the transcript is correct. Some typewriting textbooks aid in this misunderstanding. They give formulas for letter placement that often neglect such important factors as size of type, space occupied by the letterhead, and other factors. Only if the key points in the use of these formulas are made clear will they be used intelligently by learners.

INCREASING IMPORTANCE OF JOB TRAINING ON THE POST HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

Undoubtedly, more recognition will be given in the future to in-service training on the post-high-school level. After a person has obtained a position in a special vocation and has found that the type of work is relatively fitted to his ability, the school can frequently provide him with the skills needed for promotion. Such training, it must be recognized, can be furnished only on the post high school level.

At best, the school can give only a minimum of significant job training. In the high school, teachers should not try to develop in boys and girls specialized vocational skills much higher than those necessary to get and hold a beginning job in business. These young people, who have never had vocational experience under regular working conditions, cannot usually profit by a program of job training that will be unused for several years. If the schools extend their training too many years ahead, many students will have shifted to other fields and will, therefore, not profit by this training, or in other cases, the training required will have changed. Moreover, the process of forgetting soon begins to function in any kind of learning, and as a result the motivation is obviously weakened.

STRUCTURE AND ADMINISTRATION OF JOB TRAINING

In the structure and administration of education there has been an excessive tendency to present so called vocational education only in vocational schools. This is unfortunate. Subjects that have vocational aspects, or that formerly possessed occupational utility, but that now

have only general value, must not be confused with specific vocational work. Knowledge needed by everybody belongs to the realm of general education, specific job training is vocational education. When these terms are used with other implications, they lead to a dangerous confusion of ideas.

The tendency to make vocational education synonymous with practical education makes the term, for many purposes, meaningless. All good education is vocational. Specific job preparation is called *vocational training* by some educators. Since the term has been used so broadly, it is becoming important to find other terminology for subject matter that is primarily and specifically vocational.

Vocational education is concerned with at least three types of subject matter:

- 1 Those knowledges and understandings that will give young people an understanding of the socio-economic life, that is, the business environment in which they will live after their training has been completed. This type of learning might be called *orientation training*.

- 2 Specific information that will result in greater occupational efficiency, such as knowledge of labor laws, and specific techniques of measurement used in the occupation.

- 3 Skills, manipulative and otherwise, that are used in the occupation for which training is being given.

Emphasis has been especially strong on the third type, for this is the objective aspect of a job. Some attention has been given to the second, although vocational teachers often presume that this knowledge is acquired without effort. The first type has been seriously neglected. Only as young people understand the relationship of their job to the entire economic system can they fit into both successfully.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 What major schemes have been suggested for the organization of job training in the secondary schools? Indicate the difficulties and advantages of each.

- 2 What are the various forms or phases of vocational training? Which of these can the secondary school successfully undertake? What types of institutions are best fitted to do those which the high school is not able to do? Why?

- 3 What is meant by a hierarchy of vocational training? How far in the

direction of specific training can the high school go? What factors will determine this?

4 Why is there need for both vocational and nonvocational training in the secondary school?

5 Why has job training become increasingly important on the post high-school level and relatively less important at the secondary school level?

6 Evaluate the structure and administration of job training in formally organized schools. Do this for at least one vocational school you have visited or read about.

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CHAPTER VIII

Changing Occupational Life

IN THE FIRST decades of our national life, an overwhelming majority of gainfully occupied persons were engaged in some form of agriculture. Manufacturing was already assuming significance, while commerce played only an incidental part in the economic scheme. In fact, only 2.5 per cent, or one person in 40 of those gainfully occupied were primarily engaged in some form of business endeavor. The professions, civil service, and domestic and personal services provided a living to a relatively small number of persons. Until after the Civil War this was true of most of the country, with the exception of the seacoast fringes of New England and the Middle States.

Since then, the occupational picture has undergone amazing changes. The proportion of those engaged in agricultural pursuits has declined in almost every decade. On the other hand, the personnel in manufacturing occupations increased steadily until the decade 1920-1930, when, for the first time, a lessening in the per cent of increase was recorded. This flattening out of increase is more significant than it at first appears, because it shows that the ability of the manufacturing occupations to absorb workers from agriculture is probably reaching its peak.

EXPANSION IN BUSINESS LIFE

Business occupations have likewise expanded remarkably. In 1820, the first time the Census attempted a study of occupational life, not more than 2.5 per cent (72,486) of the gainfully occupied workers were in

commercial pursuits By 1870, the ratio was 5.7 per cent (715,828), by 1900, almost 8 per cent (2,997,826), by 1930, 19.3 per cent (9,409,947), by 1940, it was over 25 per cent (11,294,545); and by 1950, almost 29 per cent (16,214,808)

TABLE 4 *Occupational Employment in the United States in 1950 and 1960 Estimate*

Occupational Group	1950		1960 Est	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Farm Group Farmers farm managers and farm laborers	6,706,047	11.0	6,100,000	9.0
Industrial Group Manufacturers craft oper- atives, and laborers	22,336,012	39.7	27,800,000	41.2
Household Workers	1,407,400	2.5	1,600,000	2.5
Service Workers	4,287,703	7.6	5,400,000	8.0
Professional Workers (except those classified elsewhere)	3,412,177	6.1	4,100,000	7.0
Teachers	1,120,605	2.0	1,600,000	2.0
Business Group Managers clerical workers sales workers etc	16,214,808	28.0	20,400,000	30.5
Not reported	740,522	1.3	—	—
Total	56,225,340	100.0	67,000,000	100.0

These statistics are subject to three modifications (1) classification methods varied with successive census periods, and the same persons were placed in different classifications at different times, (2) as occupational life became specialized and diversified, additional classification problems developed, (3) business positions are usually not so sharply defined as industrial occupations

Table 4 gives the occupational distribution of workers in the United States for 1950 and 1960 For the purposes of this text, all farm workers

were placed in one grouping. This would not be justified if a penetrating analysis of farm employment trends were in order in this book. All that is desired here, however, to give a broad picture of the relation of farm employment to that of all occupational life as a basis for focusing detailed attention upon business occupations. Similarly all industrial occupations were grouped together. This is justified for the purpose of this discussion, but it must be fully realized that highly varied occupations in form of work, job training, and school education are included among these industrial workers. Note in Table 4 the extent to which household workers have decreased in the decade from 1950 to 1960. Note also the extent to which business occupations have increased. The implications of these data are considered later in this chapter.

About 67 million persons were gainfully occupied in 1960, over 20 million of these, or about 14 million more than the number employed in agriculture, were engaged in some form of business. In other words, business had absorbed approximately as many of the workers made available by increased population and the decline of agriculture as had manufacturing. To be sure, the number of persons engaged in the professions, civil service, and domestic and personal services had also increased, but these occupations together have thus far played a smaller part than either business or manufacturing in the making of American economic history.

VALIDITY OF OCCUPATIONAL DATA

Unfortunately, many of the procedures used in the census are at variance with the procedures used in previous census reports. Comparisons based entirely upon the census are, therefore, often invalid. The census data for certain specific occupations, such as that of stenographer and typist, are quite sound and probably more reliable than those obtained from local surveys. In every case, however, it is desirable to supplement, and in some cases to substitute, census information with more detailed surveys of business occupations made in local communities as a basis for determining training needs. Unfortunately, many of the local surveys have been poorly planned and often undertaken in order to prove predetermined opinions. All occupational statistics, therefore, must be subjected to careful scrutiny and comparison with other available information.

BUSINESS GROWTH PRIMARILY AN ASPECT OF SPECIALIZATION

In analyzing these statistics, it must not be assumed merely from these figures that business has become more important than other forms of economic activity. A century ago, many transactions now performed by businessmen were undertaken by farmers and manufacturers. The increase in trade and clerical occupations chiefly reflects the growing specialization of the economic system. George Washington, for example, probably would have been classified as a farmer and as a civil servant. He could also have been classified as a businessman, since he undertook many intricate business transactions and did considerable manufacturing. This diversity of interests was typical of his day, it is far less usual at present.

The fact that farmers have turned over many of their former duties to businessmen and manufacturers is one of the reasons why a proportionately smaller farm population is needed today. It is difficult to determine to what extent this trend is caused by greater agricultural efficiency and by an increase in specialization. Whether it applies to agricultural pursuits or to other occupations the usual result of specialization is, in the long run at least, greater efficiency.

This brief survey of the past paves the way for some reasonable conjectures as to the occupational changes that may take place in the future.

THE FUTURE OF FARMING

There were at least two, if not more, million fewer workers in 1960 than in 1940. The number of persons in the total labor force engaged in agriculture will probably continue to decrease. The number so employed decreased from 21.9 per cent of all those employed in 1930 to 18.3 per cent in 1940, and to 11.9 per cent in 1950. In 1960, there were around six million farm workers. This change in status is disturbing to most people for they regard agriculture (and probably rightly so) as the basis of a strong and happy nation. The prediction, however, is justified because as farming becomes increasingly industrialized, fewer workers will be needed to take care of the increased production that is consequent upon industrialization.

The American population is gradually becoming stabilized, albeit

slower than anticipated. It is quite possible that the relatively high population increase of the war and postwar periods will not continue. Americans, therefore, are not in a position to absorb tremendous increases in farm products; moreover, it is quite probable that the great industrial nations of the world will try to make themselves agriculturally independent. It is doubtful, therefore, whether the United States can rely upon an increase in agricultural exports as a basis for increased production and a consequent increase of agricultural workers.

THE FUTURE OF MANUFACTURING

A similar situation may soon prevail in manufacturing. Rearmament created a backlog of consumer demand for manufactured goods. War needs, problems of reconversion, great increases in population in almost all countries, and increased consumer interests in manufactured goods undoubtedly have sustained a large number of workers in manufacturing occupations. Once these needs have been met, however, there should be little difficulty in keeping up with the demand for manufactured goods, due to the increased efficiency resulting from automation. Many inventions will be developed, which will result in new commodities that the American public will want to buy. But the public, in all probability, will resist high pressure salesmanship, and only products will find ready markets that the public finds genuinely useful. On the other hand, advanced marketing, merchandising, and advertising techniques may counterbalance this effect so that new products and new markets keep the level of manufacturing at its present norm.

For a period after the rearmament program, foreign countries did continue to provide markets for American products, nevertheless, their goal will be to attain a satisfactory manufacturing self sufficiency, so that the temporary increase of markets will not in itself be a basis for a continued increase in manufactured products for export. Furthermore, if exports increase, imports must correspondingly multiply, but will result in few net gains in occupational opportunities for Americans unless a high selectivity of raw products in imports is carefully controlled. There is continued evidence that the nation is becoming increasingly self sufficient, and that other nations are striving toward the same objective. Wherever exchange of merchandise among countries results in improved production efficiency, it should be encouraged, but

many question whether foreign trade in itself is a major basis for a continued per cent of increase among industrial workers in the United States

OPPORTUNITIES IN OTHER FIELDS

When those fields that do not touch upon manufacture or agriculture are analyzed, it is found that there are distinct limitations in the services they have rendered thus far. For example, enormous effort has been exerted in curative medicine, but preventive medicine has been sadly neglected, although the preventive programs that have been undertaken have been outstandingly successful. There are probably less than a million persons gainfully occupied in some form of direct health service, it would be inestimably beneficial to society to increase that number very considerably. Other professions offer similar opportunities of service.

INCREASE IN GOVERNMENT PERSONNEL

During the present century, the services of government have expanded until, today, everyone individually comes into constant touch with them. By 1930, the public payrolls included over three million persons, excluding those not classified under other categories, such as teachers. The depression period of the 1930's increased this number greatly, and the World War II period caused a further expansion, which a few years ago would have been thought utterly intolerable. The rearmament program has further increased the number of government workers. The public has become accustomed to the idea of receiving large amounts of service from the government, and it will be exceedingly difficult to reduce these services. Many persons, moreover, have developed a vested interest in the right to government employment, consequently, they will do everything in their power to maintain it.

In the complex world of today, a tremendous amount of governmental activity is inevitable whether it is liked or not. The community, therefore, must realistically accept the high rate of governmental employment in communities, states, and in the Federal Government. Americans must make certain that these services are what the people really want, and that the services are rendered as economically as possible. Because much of the service of government is of a business nature, government leader

ship is confronted with a tremendous training problem. Private enterprise has the constant control of profit and loss as a means of maintaining efficiency. Government lacks this control. It is, therefore, all the more important for government to have well trained, efficient, and professionally minded civil servants. Governmental service will be an area of considerable opportunity for employment and for training in business subjects. The 1950 Census data indicated that self employment has decreased and government employment increased in the 1940-1950 period, and the 1960 Census will probably show this trend as continuing.

INCREASE IN THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS DESIRABLE

Among the state-employed groups, none requires augmentation so much as does the teacher group. There are over one and a half million teachers in this country for a school population of over 43 million. While large classes have certain advantages, the fact remains that the present educational philosophy cannot be carried out unless classes are made smaller.

It is futile to talk of the child-centered school while the average teacher has as many as 30 students under his care. Indeed, many classes in public schools have a ratio of over 50 students to the teacher. The consolidation of rural schools is enlarging the size of classes in sparsely populated districts, thereby aggravating the situation. Consolidation is desirable, but it should be balanced by reduced size in classes wherever practicable.

An increase in the number of teachers employed at public expense is therefore, desirable. While such expenditures at times may be abused, none of the taxpayers' money is likely to produce more worth while results than that which is allocated to education. No other profession, with the possible exception of medicine, has a greater shortage of well trained workers. Within the span of the coming generation probably more teachers will find employment than do now. The increase in the number of teachers, however, is less important than improvement in their caliber. It is probable that a generation hence there will be a smaller number of children, therefore, they should receive a more personalized training.

As changes in occupational life become more frequent, rehabilitation training will become increasingly necessary, and the problems of adult education will be more involved than at present. Also, many persons retired from active work at a comparatively early age will require train-

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World War II transferred thousands of domestic workers from the home to the factory. Many of them have not returned to domestic service. There is, however, a need for workers within individual households, for in many cases these services cannot be provided by the housewife herself. Some phase of the school system can render a most useful social service by helping adjust the employment problems to the situation. Housewives must be retrained, so that they will treat domestic workers like regular employees rather than as lesser members of the household. The workers also must be made to realize their responsibilities. Basic to this, of course, is the need for readjustment in the work situation itself.

There are opportunities for putting this type of employment on a more businesslike basis by providing domestic service through larger organizations. In larger cities, limited service of this type is sometimes available even now. In the future, housework will be even more simplified, so that much of the work can be done with machinery and within regular hours of employment.

The school can help create the right kind of working relationships and must, therefore, accept primary responsibility for providing the training. It is contingent upon the school and other agencies to make personal service in general, and domestic service in particular, a respectable and worthy way of earning a living.

Meanwhile the number of laundry workers, restaurant and hotel keepers and managers, and similar employees has increased constantly. The decentralization of housework has provided the housewife with more time for either leisure or remunerative employment. Consider also the development of various forms of beauty aids in the last decade. Beauty parlors and other closely related fields of personal service give employment to thousands of workers.

SECONDARY SCHOOL TRAINING IN PERSONAL AND DOMESTIC SERVICE MAY RELIEVE CROWDING IN BUSINESS SUBJECTS

Both personal and domestic service offer excellent opportunities for employment, and organized problems of occupational training in various phases of these services may be the means of relieving excess enrollments in the traditional business subjects.

ing in the worthwhile use of their leisure. Commendable progress has already been made in this direction in many schools.

INCREASE DESIRABLE IN CONSERVATION FORCES

More workers should be directed toward the conservation services. The Civilian Conservation Corps of the 1930s showed the way. Conservation programs might be organized for young women. Such services should be either a phase of the total educational program or be closely connected with it. Idle persons may, moreover, in periods of unemployment be given socially useful occupations by these means, and thus a force that might otherwise have evil effects may be turned into fruitful channels. The conservation of natural resources should not, however, be a sporadic procedure undertaken only when there is a surplus of labor. Such services as the Fish and Wildlife Service and the Forest Service should be greatly expanded, for, while the economic and social gains from this work will not be very effective in a year or two, they do have a long range value.

OTHER SERVICES THAT MAY BE EXPANDED

A more enlightened consumption of goods and services, development of better housing and hundreds of similar projects indicate only a few of the possibilities of employment through the expansion of services. With a rise in the average age of the population, an increased interest in services as compared to goods will result, and therefore such facilities will become more significant.

INCREASED NUMBERS OF PERSONAL WORKERS

While various types of domestic service are becoming less significant in occupational life today due to increased mechanization in the household and the smaller size of the American family, opportunities for personal service are increasing in many ways. Domestic employment has become unpopular as a means of gaining a living, and this is a desirable trend, in spite of the objection of some housewives for at best domestic work formerly had many of the aspects of servile labor.

OCCUPATIONAL REHABILITATION

In the 1960s there will, of course, be a considerable problem of rehabilitation due to automation. As greater efficiency in production and distribution results from automation, it will become increasingly important to develop new work for the released workers. Retraining workers to more skilled tasks will be a perennial problem and will require the best efforts of both preservice training and on-the-job training programs to cope with the problem. It is especially important in business occupations because, as the population matures, the shift of workers from industry and agriculture to business and service industries is likely to persist.

ECONOMIC SYSTEM AND OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS

The trend in business occupations, as well as other occupations, is dependent on the type of economy that develops. If governmental ownership and control in America is increasing, then those occupations that are deemed important for group achievement will receive a special emphasis. Under such conditions, employment is likely to be somewhat more static because governments usually maintain a set form of employment and encourage the development of new employment only in those areas that are believed to be especially socially desirable.

If government accepts the responsibility for maintaining full or nearly full employment for all, then it must inevitably take over ownership (or at least participate in the ownership) of production and very rigorously control free enterprise. Whether this is desirable, or whether the American people will consider it desirable, is another question. It may be altogether possible that the United States will gradually grow into this type of economy without realizing it, and, because of this gradual development, the people will accept its benefits and tolerate its consequences.

Governmental enterprise with its arbitrary control of distribution results in an inertia which may make Americans impatient, and then the traditional attitude of Americans toward free enterprise may reassert itself.

If the American people prefer to have free enterprise with its benefits, they must also accept its faults. A country cannot have real free enterprise without a certain amount of fluctuation in activity. This means that a residual amount of permanent unemployment must be experienced

So long as the secondary schools offer vocational education in only one or two limited occupational areas, students will flock to them in spite of inadequate background for mastering the required skills. Only when other vocational opportunities are made available can those students who obviously lack a natural aptitude for certain business subjects be intelligently discouraged from taking them. Moreover, students who have tried business subjects and have been disillusioned will find themselves in a more congenial field.

UNEMPLOYMENT AND OCCUPATIONAL INSECURITY

The United States Census discloses little difference in the percentage of unemployed workers in trade and clerical occupations as compared with unemployment in all occupations. This obviously tells only part of the story, for wages and permanence of employment must also be considered.

There is some evidence that clerical workers have not been able to maintain the wage standards they had at the beginning of the century, as compared with workers in other fields. This may be attributed to the emphasis upon clerical training in public secondary schools and to several other causes. There is little doubt that the specialized type of work undertaken in public high schools and in private business schools has led to a narrowing of vocational opportunities.

ADJUSTMENT OF DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS

Occupational distribution is probably not ideal. The oversupply of workers in some fields is doubtless relatively small, in others, it is correspondingly large. This accentuates the unemployment situation. Maldistribution of workers can be reduced only to the extent to which it is possible by research to determine this condition and to place the information clearly and thoroughly before the public. Even after this is done, there still remains the task of adjusting consumption and production in the economic system as a whole. In the performance of this task, formal school education can participate only indirectly. Such economic adjustment requires the joint effort of all social institutions, not only that of the schools.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1 What reasons in addition to those given in this chapter can you give for the growth of business in the United States? Study some advanced book on American economic history before drawing your conclusion

2 List the ways in which the war has upset the normal occupational trends To what extent will the occupational life of the United States revert to those original trends?

3 Study current literature to obtain evidence regarding the soundness or unsoundness of the opinion that a smaller proportion of workers will engage in agriculture and manufacturing, and that larger proportions will find work in business and service occupations, and in the professions

4 What is likely to be the trend in the farm population of the United States in the future? Why?

5 Why is manufacturing likely to continue to be the most important form of occupational life in the United States? Is there any likelihood of its relative importance becoming less?

6 Check the research studies of the National Education Association for further evidence regarding the need for more and better prepared teachers in the United States

7. Make a first-hand study of the census data for 1950 and develop other relationships than those given in this chapter Compare them with the findings of various local occupational surveys

8 Read several current articles dealing with the place of women in occupational life Refer to the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* for suggestions Compare your findings with the conclusions presented in this chapter

9 Read over the social security legislation of the United States (See the *World Almanac*) To what extent does this legislation provide an answer to the problems of older workers indicated here?

10 The *New York Times Index* lists many news items, articles, and discussions dealing with current changes in the American economic system From a reading of these draw a conclusion about the form of economic life this country will develop What influence will this form of business life have upon occupational training and opportunities?

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along with increase and decrease in employment which accompany variations in the quantity of business activity. Under free enterprise, moreover, it is less easy to determine the trend of occupational life because it depends on the buying trend of the entire population, rather than a set plan worked out in advance by a segment of society with the consent, it is hoped, of the rest of the population. Society, in the period as far ahead as it can reasonably be studied, will be unquestionably a combination of government control and free enterprise. To the extent to which enterprise is arbitrarily controlled, if not owned by the government, its course can be planned. To the extent to which the American people encourage or even tolerate free enterprise, it will be largely a matter of figuring out the changes in the desires of the whole population.

This brief discussion has not attempted to present the desirability of either point of view. Rather, it has tried to point out that there are advantages and disadvantages to both, that in accepting the advantages of one procedure there must be open mindedness in being willing to accept its disadvantages, and that the course taken will determine the nature of occupational life in the period ahead.

CONCLUSION

Regardless of the type of economic system developed, it is evident that occupational life—especially business occupational life—is becoming more specialized. Yet this very fact makes too early specialization undesirable, for as the specialization becomes more minute, it must be based on a firmer basic understanding of the nature of the work. Thus specialized techniques must be learned on the job even more than formerly. Business workers will become clerks, salesmen, and managers in the overwhelming majority of cases. When they get on the job, they will develop skills unique to their firm and to the particular group of customers that the firm may have. If teachers attempt to give students highly specialized job training or attempt to make them believe that such training will be uniquely valuable to them, a disservice will be done. If teachers can give students an understanding of how the total process of business operates and make them see why it is important for them to understand this process in relation to each particular job they may obtain, then teachers will be making these persons keen, understanding business men and women. In this way, business education will truly become an educational factor in our contemporary life.

CHAPTER IX

Business Occupations

BUSINESS is one of the major segments of occupational life. More people are employed in business than in any other occupation grouping except manufacturing and farming. The United States Census does not have a special classification of those engaged in business occupations because of the wide diversity of types of work. Some are classified as managers, some as clerical workers, and some as service workers. Nevertheless, it is not difficult with a fair degree of validity to isolate those who usually would be regarded as having business occupations. Table 5 gives these data.

These data are compilations of occupational groups and necessarily, therefore, approximations. Many managerial workers are also clerical workers, for example, and even more are engaged in some selling. Some sales workers also are clerical workers. This is inevitable in an area of service in which there are few specific trades. Thus the census statisticians believe that clerks in stores are usually better classed as sales workers. Nevertheless, some of them are no doubt office clerks. It was found difficult to segregate wholesalers, and retailers might often be classed more correctly as managers than as sales workers. Even an occasional secretary is more correctly classed as an office manager than as a stenographer. These figures must, therefore, be used with caution. In spite of this, these data are for most purposes more reliable than those obtained from local surveys, inasmuch as the census statisticians are at least aware of these difficulties, while local surveyors often blithely ignore them.

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SURVEYS OF BUSINESS OCCUPATIONS

There have been hundreds of local and regional surveys of business occupations. There also have been a few national surveys. Some of these surveys were organized for purposes other than determining training needs. They have, nevertheless, indirectly contributed to the better understanding of the nature of business occupations. Many of the local surveys are, however, ill conceived and mere imitations of national surveys. Some of them vary so greatly from the evidence found elsewhere that little significance can be placed upon their meaning.

Suppose, for example, an office worker is asked whether he is a bookkeeper or an accountant. There may be a strong tendency for him to call himself an accountant in order to increase his personal prestige. Again, in many of these surveys, persons are asked which subjects they would have found most useful if they had taken them in high school. A tremendous number mention bookkeeping and shorthand. Do they just think these subjects would have been useful to them, or do they really know? In many cases, they wish to blame incomplete formal training for their failure to do their jobs well in the first place. What weight can be given to the judgment of a person who does not know the content of these subjects in determining whether such subjects would have been useful to him on his job? How effectively do businessmen think through the answers to the questions? When businessmen say they are not interested in specialized skills, is it because they do not realize how much they would miss these skills if their employees did not have them, or is it because the skills are really not necessary?

When employers say that the outstanding deficiency of employees is inadequate character training, do they mean just that, or do they mean that the employees are not as pliable to their wishes as they would like them to be? Some retailing establishments put their potential executives through a gruelling experience of hard work and long hours. They are able to obtain workers at low salaries because their policy of advancing employees to executive positions is known, and some persons have eventually worked up into well-paid positions. Should the school give training that will make people willing to accept this situation? The answer is no simple "Yes" or "No." Yet, for the most part, local surveys have failed to discriminate among the questions that they ask.

TABLE 5 *Estimated Number and Per Cent of Workers in Business Occupations in 1960 and Stated Number and Per Cent of Workers in 1940*

Occupation	1960		1940	
	Number	Per Cent ¹	Number	Per Cent ¹
Managers	0 329 000	31 0	3 624 843	32 1
Accountants	612 000	3 0	210 340	1 0
Bookkeepers and cashiers	1 122 000	5 5	641 058	5 7
Total of accountants book keepers and cashiers	1 734 000	8 5	851 398	7 6
Typing—stenographic workers	2 040 000	10 0	1 057,880	9 4
Clerical workers except office machine operators	5 100 000	25 0	2 623 592	23 2
Office machine operators	300 000	1 5	59 738	5
Total clerical workers	5 400 000	20 5	2 683 330	23 7
Sales workers	4 820 000	24 0	3 075 080	27 2
Total in business occupations	20 400 000	100 0	11 294 545	100 0
Total employed	67 000 000	30 4	44 888 083	25 7 ²

¹ Per cent of total in business occupations

² Per cent of all employed in business occupations

The data in Table 5 and other tables derived from the census figures do not exactly follow the census classifications. For example, accountants and auditors have been subtracted from professional workers and listed among business workers. It is recognized that quite possibly not all managerial workers have a major business function. In the census, stenographers and bookkeepers are classed as clerical workers. Here these workers have been subtracted from clerical workers, and therefore the total given for clerical workers in these tables will be smaller than that indicated in the census figures. No apology is made for this procedure. It is desirable and indeed necessary for this analysis. However, an explanation is needed for those who wish to make more detailed comparisons with government census data.

nature of his local community, and it gives him relationships with the local businessmen that might otherwise be difficult to obtain. Such surveys also make the businessman aware not only of the difficulties of the high school, but also of the very considerable contributions that the school is rendering. Delta Pi Epsilon fraternity has developed a set of questionnaire forms that can be used by business teachers to survey the local employment situation. The teacher is consequently spared the arduous work of perfecting his own survey instrument.

The judgments presented in this book are in large measure distilled from numerous surveys of local communities. A list of some important surveys in business occupations is given at the close of this chapter.

SHIFTS IN WORKERS WITHIN BUSINESS OCCUPATIONS

It is quite remarkable that there have been such minor shifts within business occupations, considering the rather considerable increase in all business occupations. The relative per cents of increase for stenographers, bookkeepers, and even clerical workers are not significant. The relative increase in the proportion of accountants (though they are a small proportion of the entire group) can be explained by the great increase in recording required taxation procedures. The number of office machine operators increased significantly. However, the total number is still rather small, and the justification for specialized mastery training in the operation of these machines in other than the larger vocational schools may well be questioned. To what extent the slight increases and decreases in the number of managerial workers and enterprisers are caused by changing shifts in opportunities for enterprise and to what extent these shifts are caused by tabulation procedure is not clear. Much of the remainder of this chapter will consider each of these occupations in detail.

SHORTHAND

As Table 6 shows, there was a measurable increase in the number of stenographic workers from 1940 to 1960. There are now just over two million typing stenographic workers in the United States. This shows that the school can continue to count rather strongly on stenography as a major area of employment. Inasmuch as the great majority

in order to determine the specific nature of the answer. This, to be sure, is a very difficult thing to do.

Is anyone who does any kind of record keeping a bookkeeper? Is he only the person who actually does double-entry bookkeeping, using the bookkeeping training received in school? When should it be decided that a student's training in stenography is wasted? If he has not found a stenographic job after three months? After a year? Suppose there is a sudden drop in employment? Should the school be condemned for having trained persons for stenography merely because the employment situation is unsatisfactory? Suppose a typist takes a bit of longhand dictation once or twice a day—is he a stenographer? Neither the census nor local surveys answer these questions satisfactorily. The information of the census, however, is at least disinterested, whereas some of the local surveyors set out to prove a point. Under the conditions presented above, this is not too difficult.

TABLE 6 *Per Cent of Workers in Business Compared to All Employed Workers Estimated for 1960 and Stated in 1950 and 1940*

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>1960</i>	<i>1950</i>	<i>1940</i>
Managerial workers	0.4	8.9	8.0
Accountants and auditors	9	7	5
Bookkeepers and cashiers	1.7	1.5	1.4
Stenographic workers	3.0	2.8	2.4
Clerical workers except office machine operators	7.6	7.9	5.8
Office machine workers	5	3	1
Sales workers	7.3	7.0	6.8
Total in business occupations as a per cent of all employed workers	30.4	29.1	25.7

In spite of these deficiencies, local surveys can, if properly used, help fill out the picture of the training needs that the high school and post-high school business training facilities must render. It is often desirable to set up a local survey of business education. When a survey is well conducted, it may have results similar to those already known, and also other fringe values. It makes the investigator himself more aware of the

increasing employment of women. As will be indicated in detail later, bookkeeping functions are being broken down into more specialized jobs. Moreover, in spite of mechanization, the number of bookkeeping and accounting workers will probably tend to increase, though not in proportion to the total population, because the increasing complexity of the tax structure and the ramifications of the economy make more record keeping a necessity.

CLERICAL WORKERS

The outstanding increase in numbers of workers in business occupations is in the clerical occupations. In 1930, 3.37 per cent of those gainfully employed were clerks, in 1950, 8.2 per cent were so employed.¹

Of the 4,357,489 clerical workers not otherwise classified in 1950, it is surprising to note that only 142,066 or fewer than 4 per cent were definitely office machine operators. Unless the census figures are completely erroneous, this blasts the notion that business students who do not go in for bookkeeping, stenography, or sales training in the high schools should be given office machine training of a specialized form. The evidence indicates that less than one out of 20 clerical workers make job skill use of an office machine. Undoubtedly many clerks not classified as office machine operators make use of, and need acquaintance with skill on, the more common office machines, such as the typewriter, adding machine, and one of the various forms of duplicating machines. But except for those who make some use of the typewriter, it is quite likely that they classified themselves for census purposes as office machine operators if they made really specialized job use of one of these machines.

For those who are likely to go into clerical work, therefore, the school can justify familiarity with those office machines that are quite widely used as a basis for occupational use on the job. However, of those who are classified as office machine operators, 82 per cent are women, this is further evidence that it is less desirable to give specialized office-machine training to many boys.

The increased proportion of clerks shows that the number of non-specialized workers in business occupations is constantly increasing. The vast majority of business workers are general clerks, salesmen and managerial workers. Specific job training in school is still given on a

of the workers in stenographic occupations are young women, this field of service will probably continue to be, because of the rapid turnover, the best single occupation for the employment of young women in urban areas. The slight decrease in the percentage of stenographers as compared with all others in business occupations is not significant.

It is interesting to note that there has been a very slight increase in the number of male stenographers. In 1930, only 3.1 per cent of all stenographers were males, in 1950, 5.6 per cent were males. In 1940, the first time since the Census began to give data on stenographic occupations, the trend toward the feminization of stenographic occupations was reversed. This may be because some young men, temporarily employed as typists, were included in this category.

The implications of these figures, so far as the schools are concerned, are that teachers should continue to encourage a considerable number of students with the right kind of personality and intelligence to begin their business careers as stenographers.

BOOKKEEPING

There has been little change in the proportion of workers in bookkeeping occupations. In 1930, 2.09 per cent of all those engaged in occupational life were bookkeepers and accountants, in 1940, this had decreased to 1.9 per cent. Here is tangible evidence of the extent to which machine bookkeeping has probably resulted in a decrease in the number of workers because of job efficiency. However, by 1960, taxation problems had evidently created an increased volume of work for the percentage of bookkeepers had risen considerably.

Even in accounting there was an increase in the proportion of women. Accounting, however, is an occupational area that is still rather difficult for women to enter. In bookkeeping occupations, the trend toward mechanization has been marked and has resulted in a relative stabilization in the total number of routine workers and an increase in the number of professional workers, that is, accountants. This evidently has not been the case in stenographic occupations where mechanization has had little measurable influence in stabilizing the number of those employed.

There should continue to be a considerable number of positions available in bookkeeping because of the rather high turnover caused by

include the hundreds of thousands of managers and clerks who do a considerable amount of selling. If these were included among sales workers, the number would be over five million. Of sales workers, about 34 per cent are women, whereas in 1930, 17 per cent were women.

These figures give no indication of the numerous types of work conducted under the label of sales worker. This problem will be discussed in more detail in Chapter XXI on distributive education.

There is a strong trend toward self service stores which employ more clerks, such as checkers, weighers, and stock clerks, but fewer salespeople. In the long run, however, the number of sales workers will continue to grow, though not to the same degree as in the past.

Though much improvement in sales training has taken place because of the George Deen Act and the George-Barden Act, this area of training is still inadequately served in most secondary schools and colleges.

MANAGERIAL WORKERS IN BUSINESS

The number of managerial workers required by economic enterprise is high. The proportion of such workers who have significant business responsibilities, according to the census data, is close to 5 per cent of the labor force. This omits all technical managers and all owners and managers of distributive enterprise. Technicians are grouped under professional workers. Craftsmen, or operators, as well as owners and managers of sales services are grouped under the category of clerical, sales, and kindred workers. Even more important, the 5 million farm owners, tenants, and managers are listed separately. One of the major reasons for unsuccessful farms is poor management and failure to follow good business practice. These have often been more significant than lack of skill in farming technique.

Thus it can be seen that while no exact figures of the number of managerial workers can be obtained, the proportion of such workers in the total labor force is quite large. The ability of these workers to use wise management practices in their enterprises may be the key to the degree of success of our economic system. Anything business training in the schools can do to help develop better management for American business enterprise will have profound influence on the economic welfare of all.

very unsubstantial basis in these occupations. There is little scientific evidence that those who have taken general clerical training programs in high schools do better as general clerks than those who did not have that training. Some of the studies, in fact, indicate that those who have had clerical training in high school do not do as well on the job as those who have not had clerical training in school. The reason for this, however, is probably that those who took the clerical curriculums were negatively selective in the first place. Inasmuch as these programs tend to attract a poorer caliber of students, these do not do as well on the job later as the superior students who have not had specific clerical training.

Although it has not been proved, there is little reason for doubting that a well-organized, well planned, and intelligently carried through clerical practice training program will fit a student for general clerkship better than no training. Nevertheless, the specific job value is not comparable to that in stenographic work, for example, wherein stenographic training is a *sine qua non*.

The reason for the great growth in the number of clerical workers is the increasing intricacy of modern economic life. The use of additional labor saving machinery, plus more efficient office procedures, may slow down the increase for some time. The dial telephone has reduced the number of telephone operators and the teletype has made the old time telegraph operator a rare occupation. Nevertheless, all indications point to an increased proportional number of clerical workers. Women now outnumber men, and the evidence shows that this situation will probably continue, though more promotional opportunities still tend to be given to men.

SELLING OCCUPATIONS

Selling continues to predominate as an outstanding business occupation. The slight decrease in the proportion of sales workers indicated in Table 5 is probably not a true indication of the trend. As was pointed out previously, the census figures for 1930 and 1950 are not exactly comparable in all categories. Some of those classed as sales workers in 1930 were placed in other groupings in 1950.

There are now almost four million sales workers, and this does not

will turn to marriage because they cannot obtain gainful employment. Another possibility is that occupational opportunities may be so poor in the future that marriage will be possible only if women can round out their husbands' meager incomes with earnings of their own.

TABLE 7 *Per Cent of Men and Women in Occupational Groups in 1950 and 1940*

Occupational Group	1950		1940	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Farm Group				
Farm managers, farmers, and farm laborers	91.6	8.4	94.2	5.8
Industrial Group				
Manufacturers, craft operatives, and laborers	84.9	15.1	86.2	13.8
Household workers	5.2	94.8	5.6	94.4
Service workers	55.4	44.6	44.0	56.0
Professional workers (except those classified elsewhere)	69.3	30.7	70.0	30.0
Teachers	25.5	74.5	24.4	75.6
Business Group				
Managers, clerical workers, sales workers, etc.	60.8	39.2	68.3	31.7
Not reported	61.9	38.1	59.0	41.0
All Occupational Groups	72.0	28.0	75.2	24.8

Increasing Proportion of Married Women in Business. The proportion of married women has increased in practically every business occupation. In the period between 1920 and 1930 the proportion of married women in clerical work rose from around 10 to around 20 per cent, and by 1950 it had risen well over 25 per cent. Even in stenography, an occupation long considered a steppingstone to marriage, over 20 per cent of the women were married. The war, no doubt, greatly magnified

WOMEN IN BUSINESS

In the 80-year period from 1870 to 1950, the proportion of women of sixteen years of age and over engaged in gainful employment increased from 14 per cent to about 28 per cent. This shows that there has been a marked change in attitude about women working outside their homes. There has been, moreover, a greatly increased demand for workers in occupations for which women seem to be especially fitted, such as clerical occupations.

This tendency for women to become more or less permanent members of the labor force does not seem to be a transitional economic condition. It is a basic development resulting from social-economic conditions and in turn, causing major social-economic changes. It probably will continue, and women will continue to form increasingly larger proportions of the American labor force. In 1930, 23.6 per cent of the total labor force was composed of women, by 1950, this had risen to 27.4 per cent. The decline in birth rate, urbanization, and the easing of housework—brought about by smaller houses and by the use of mechanical devices in the home—have all contributed to this tendency.

The trend is even more striking in business occupations where the proportionate increase of employed women was greater than for the entire labor force. The proportion of women increased between 1930 and 1950, particularly among clerks and sales workers, though there was a slight increase of men among stenographers as noted above. Among managerial workers the proportion of women has not increased significantly. It is in fact the unusual woman who becomes a managerial worker in business. Equality of opportunity seems to exist only in some of the distributive occupations, and it is, therefore, in this type of pursuit that the ambitious young woman will find her best opportunity. Even here, the traditional attitude that commercial work is more suited to men than to women has by no means broken down.

Will Women Increasingly Advance to Higher Positions? Can women force their way into those higher business and professional positions in which men still predominate, or will they create new occupational openings for themselves? Failing in both these possibilities, will they be forced back into the home?

Many girls of a former generation took jobs because they had no suitable opportunities for marriage. It may be that the girls of tomorrow

this increase. There probably has been a reduction in the proportion of married women in business occupations in the postwar period, but the long term trend seems to be one of indifference on the part of businessmen to the marital status of their women employees. During the war period, it was found that marriage just as often is a stabilizing influence as it is a detriment in making women effective clerical workers. This tendency for women to continue to work after they are married should justify a more extended period of job training than has been given in the past. It will also increase the proportion of older women in business, thus necessitating a reorganization of the occupational structure.

Greater Percentage of Girls Enrolled in Business Courses Is Justified
In 1950, about 40 per cent of those engaged in business occupations were women, while two-thirds or more of those taking business courses in high school were girls. In stenography, however, the key occupation for which business training is given in high school, 93.4 per cent of those employed were women, similarly, in bookkeeping, clerical, and selling occupations, a large percentage of the younger workers were women. It is obvious, therefore, that the greater percentage of girls enrolled in business is justified.

JUNIOR WORKERS IN BUSINESS

In the last twenty years, junior workers have generally been eliminated from business occupations on a full time basis. This same tendency has been true of all occupational life. For example, in the period from 1930 to 1950, the proportion of boys fourteen to nineteen years old in the labor force fell from 40 to 31 per cent, and the proportion of girls employed in this age group fell to 20 per cent, contrary to the prevailing tendency for the employment of women to increase. In spite of strong efforts to keep potential younger workers in school, the war period changed this situation temporarily, but there is little doubt that the beginning age of employment will be raised (wisely or unwisely, according to varied opinion) in accordance with the advancement of educational standards and the strengthening of child labor legislation.

The proportion of younger workers in business occupations is lower than that for other types of employment, indicating that business gives less encouragement than industry to junior employment. This means that specialized job instruction should increasingly be withheld until the

TABLE 8 *Per Cent of Men and Women in Business Occupations in 1950 and 1940*

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>1950</i>		<i>1940</i>	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
Managerial workers	86.5	13.5	89.0	11.0
Accountants	85.2	14.8	91.7	8.3
Bookkeepers and cashiers	21.9	78.1	32.9	67.1
Stenographers	5.6	94.4	6.6	93.4
Clerical workers	53.6	46.4	64.8	35.2
Sales workers	66.1	33.9	74.0	26.0
Total in business occupations	61.0	39.0	68.0	32.0

TABLE 9 *Major Occupational Grouping of Young Workers, 1950*

<i>Males occupation</i>	<i>Ages per cent</i>		<i>Females occupation</i>	<i>Ages per cent</i>	
	<i>14-17</i>	<i>18-20</i>		<i>14-17</i>	<i>18-20</i>
Professional managerial, etc	1.8	7.5	Professional managerial etc	3.1	8.2
Clerical and kindred workers	4.7	8.3	Clerical and kindred workers	16.1	45.3
Sales workers	13.8	7.7	Sales workers	20.3	8.8
Craftsmen etc	16.7	37.4	Craftsmen etc	11.2	15.2
Private household workers	0.2	0.1	Private household workers	16.8	5.1
Other service workers	7.9	4.9	Other service workers	14.7	11.4
Farm laborers (paid)	12.0	10.2	Farm laborers (paid)	3.3	1.5
Farm laborers unpaid family workers	25.7	9.6	Farm laborers unpaid family workers	7.7	1.9
Other laborers	13.6	13.0	Other laborers	1.4	0.7
Not reported	3.6	1.3	Not reported	5.4	1.9
Total	100.0	100.0	Total	100.0	100.0

Source of data: Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports: Population Characteristics*, "Children and Youth, 1950," Series P 20, No. 32, December 4, 1950.

later years of the training period. Practically no workers in the age group 14 to 17 are bookkeepers, stenographers, or even typists. Bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting belong in the later years of high school, and some persons contend with considerable supporting evidence from job data, that such training should be given only on a post high-school level. At one time, elementary business training was regarded as a means of preparation for the routine occupations entered by junior business workers. This aim is no longer stressed. However, the subject still provides the best available preparation for junior business occupations, even as it is taught today. In fact, the more mature students will probably be far more insistent that the training offered is worth while, this is especially true when they are compelled by law to remain in school until comparative maturity.

OLDER WORKERS IN OCCUPATIONAL LIFE

As in the case of younger workers, there was also a marked decrease in the number of older workers in the labor force. For men 65 years and over, the decline between 1930 and 1950 was from 54 to 42 per cent. There was also a slight decline for women 65 years and over in the labor force, though the general tendency was for a larger percentage of women to continue in employment. The reduced proportion of workers 65 years and over is continued evidence of the trend toward earlier retirement from the labor force. Social security legislation has without doubt strengthened this trend.

In the decade from 1940 to 1950, the population over 65 years increased 37 per cent, whereas the number under 65 rose only 13 per cent. Now over 12 million people have passed their sixty fifth birthday (one in twelve). At the beginning of the century, only one in twenty-five was 65 or over. Among this group there are 100 men to 116 women. Two-thirds of the men are married, but only one-third of the women are married. Of those 65 and over, 40 per cent of the men were in the labor force, but only 8 per cent of the women.

The failure to use the services of those 65 and over in employment is often unfortunate. Even though they are financially independent, a situation far from typical, they require means of occupying their time. This is particularly true of those in the years between 65 and 70 who, in large numbers, are active, healthy, and alert. Business has an obliga-

TABLE 10 *Per Cent Distribution of Employed Persons in the Major Occupational Groups by Age and Sex, United States, April, 1951*

Major occupational group	Total em ployed	Age							65 years and over
		14-19 years	20-24 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55-64 years		
TOTAL EMPLOYED MALES	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	
Professional and technical workers	7 1	0.3	5 6	9 4	8.5	6 6	5 6	5.9	
Farmers and farm managers	9 4	2 6	5 7	6 8	9 1	10 9	13 3	20 0	
Managers, officials, and pro- prietors, excluding farm	12 3	0 8	3 5	9 1	14 7	17 9	15 7	16.2	
Clerical workers	6 3	6 6	10 1	6 9	6 0	5 2	5 6	3.9	
Sales workers	5 6	11 8	4 9	6 3	5 4	4 4	4 2	5 6	
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	19 6	4 8	15 9	21 4	21 4	22 0	21 0	15.3	
Operatives	21 0	20 2	30.3	25 9	21.2	16 9	15 8	10 0	
Private household workers	0 1	0 6	—	—	0 1	0 1	0 2	0 3	
Service workers, excluding private households	5 6	7 2	4 5	3 5	4 9	5 9	8 0	11.2	
Farm laborers and foremen	4 1	26 3	5 8	2 5	2 1	2 5	2 1	4 0	
Laborers, excluding farm and mine	8.9	19 1	13 7	8 2	6 8	7 6	8 6	7 6	
TOTAL EMPLOYED FEMALES	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0	
Professional and technical workers	10 0	3 2	11.3	10 7	10 6	10.5	10 4	9.5	
Farmers and farm managers	1 1	0 1	0 2	1 0	0 9	1 9	2 0	3 4	
Managers, officials, and pro- prietors, excluding farm	5 8	0 2	1 5	4 5	7 1	8 4	9 1	14 7	
Clerical workers	27 6	35 0	46.9	32.5	23 6	20 6	12 1	7 2	
Sales workers	7 1	12.3	5 0	5 3	7.5	7 6	7 0	6 8	
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	1 2	0 7	1 1	1 5	1 2	1 0	0 8	2 7	
Operatives	20 9	12 8	18 4	23 6	25 0	20.5	20 2	10 2	
Private household workers	10.5	18 1	4 3	6 6	8 8	12 1	16.5	24 9	
Service workers, excluding private households	12 0	13 6	8 4	10.8	11 0	12 6	17 4	16 6	
Farm laborers and foremen	3 4	3 0	2 0	3 1	3 7	4 0	4 2	4 1	
Laborers, excluding farm and mine	0.5	0 9	0 9	0 4	0 4	0 8	0 2		

Source: Unpublished data supplied by the Bureau of the Census from the Current Population Survey, data are subject to sampling variation. From the *Statistical Bulletin*, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, October, 1951

decrease more rapidly among managerial workers as the age increased also remained true in 1950 as in 1930

The number and proportion of young workers decreased sharply between 1930 and 1950, but the proportion of workers 65 years old and over in both clerical and managerial occupations was a little larger than it had been in 1930. This is contrary to the trend for all occupations indicated in the preceding paragraph and seems to indicate a longer occupational life for workers in business occupations than in other fields

SOCIAL-ECONOMIC STATUS OF BUSINESS WORKERS

Those in business occupations are often referred to as "white-collar workers" As a group they are not class conscious This may be attributed to the personal relation that existed between clerical workers and their employers until recent years There is, however, a tendency for this group to organize, and if this comes to pass, the group as a whole may be able to exert more influence on the economic life of the community

Like other members of the labor force, clerical workers are dependent on others for the opportunity to make a living The usual salary is hardly sufficient to attain a moderate standard of living, being lower than the salary of craftsmen and kindred workers, yet clerical workers complete more years of schoolwork (12.3 years) than any other occupational group except professional workers It is obvious that they have little opportunity to accumulate savings Their outlook on life, therefore, is quite different from that of proprietors and professional men and is likely to be colored by the hazard of unemployment and the possibility of poverty in old age

Proprietors and managers are also members of the business work force They form a social economic group quite different in many respects from the clerical workers They pay a large share of the taxes, do the employing direct the work of employees, and determine the nature and amount of production Thus the standards of living of these managerial workers and their points of view on social-economic problems are likely to be different from those of their employees This difference in attitude toward such problems on the part of managerial

tion to the community and an opportunity for itself to secure useful employees in this age bracket. This is particularly true of the women in this age group, who are often even more in need of employment than the men of that age. Such employment would require special attention and a thoughtful training or retraining program, but carefully worked-out procedures for the wise employment of those 65 years and over would lead to considerable economic and social benefit, not only for the aged but for the entire community.

DISTRIBUTION OF BUSINESS WORKERS BY AGE

As would be expected there is an uneven distribution of workers in business occupations at different age levels. In 1930, the largest group of clerical workers was composed of persons from 18 to 24 years old, but by 1950 the largest number was in the age group 25 to 34. This was in part caused by the tendency for women to remain in employment for a longer period of time. The peak age of employment of women stenographers is still in the age group of 18 to 24, but Table 11 indicates that over 60 per cent of all stenographers are over 24. Though it does not show in the table, over 50 per cent of all stenographers, typists, and secretaries are over 30 years old.

TABLE 11 *Age of Women Stenographers in 1950*

<i>Age Group</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Under 18	14,437	1.0
18 to 24	566,112	37.7
25 to 34	435,406	29.0
35 to 44	263,031	17.5
45 to 54	158,020	10.5
55 to 64	53,503	3.6
Over 65	10,581	0.7
Total	1,501,090	100.0

The tendency for the proportion of men to decrease more rapidly among clerical workers with increased age continued in 1950 as it had in 1930, and the reverse tendency for the proportion of women to

limitations, so that they will be content with lesser jobs, rather than make futile efforts to obtain positions that are unquestionably beyond their grasp?

What forms of guidance should be given to girls who aspire to managerial work? Granted that they have the capacity to undertake this work, will the business community be willing to give them the opportunity to prove it? These and similar questions must be answered more or less definitely before progress can be made in offering guidance about job sequences and promotional opportunities

THE FUTURE OF BUSINESS OCCUPATIONS

While the growth in numbers of workers in business may not be so rapid in the period ahead as it has been in the period through which we have passed, there is little doubt that large numbers of workers will be needed in all business occupations. The notion that such occupations as that of the stenographer will be eliminated is absurd. Similarly, while the form of record keeping and accounting may change, the numbers of workers required in this area will continue to be large. Even if far more socialization should develop than can now be contemplated, large numbers of sales workers will be needed. All observing people recognize that, by and large, goods and services are not bought—they are sold, and by painstaking effort. Moreover, promotional opportunities will probably be as great and possibly even greater in the future than they have been in the past.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1 Study Chapter VII of Lyon's *Education for Business* ("What Business Says It Wants—Indirect Expressions") to determine its conclusions in regard to the occupational status of bookkeepers, stenographers, salesmen and general office workers. Compare Lyon's conclusions with those given in this chapter.

2 Make a table for the business occupations in your state in 1950 similar to the table on page 120. Compare your results with this table. Explain them.

3 Read Nichols's *Commercial Education in the High School* to determine his conclusions in regard to office and sales workers. Compare Nichols's ideas with those given here and in Lyon's book.

workers and clerical workers is likely to increase rather than decrease as our economic system becomes even more complex

SHOULD VOCATIONAL TRAINING BE DEFERRED?

Figures clearly justify the present tendency to defer vocational training inasmuch as the best opportunity for advancement in many occupations occurs long after the student has left secondary school. The schools should perhaps offer unspecialized training in addition to specific job training because the occupations into which students will enter five, ten and fifteen years after graduation cannot be forecast. Probably, too, a more adequate type of adult education is needed.

JOB SEQUENCES IN BUSINESS

Little adequate research on job sequences of business workers has been undertaken. The reason for this is, in part, that such research is very difficult to undertake. In fact some careful observers say that there is no regular sequence of promotion in business occupations. The channels through which promotions are achieved are so varied that they defy any significant interpretation. Studies indicate that both clerical and selling positions tend to have more promotional opportunity than bookkeeping and stenography. This is probably due to the fact that the more general office occupations bring employees into closer contact with the people who are able to promote them. This is contrary to the belief of many persons. Possibly a generation or two ago, bookkeeping and stenographic positions did offer higher promotional opportunity.

It should be noted that the predominance of women in the stenographic field and the relatively smaller number of stenographers than clerks or sales persons are two factors that must be considered in connection with the foregoing statements.

The entire problem of job sequences and promotional opportunities requires extensive study. After it has been determined which jobs lead to more lucrative and worthwhile employment in business, what shall be done with the information? Shall all students be guided into those avenues that seem to lead to promotion? Shall only the brighter students be so guided? Can teachers be certain that they will become business leaders? Should not some workers be encouraged to recognize their

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4 Make a table for the business occupations in your city in 1950 similar to the table on page 120. Compare it with the table on page 120 and with your results in problem 2.

5 What are the major types of sales occupations in business?

6 What is the contribution of surveys of business education to better understanding of the needs of business? What are the limitations?

7 What is the present occupational status of stenographers? Of bookkeepers? Of clerical workers? Of sales workers?

8 What are the opportunities for managerial workers in business? Why is it more difficult to determine the number of managerial workers and their opportunities in business life than for those of other business workers?

9 Is there a differentiation in the nature of work in business between men and women?

10 To what extent is there a place for junior workers in business occupations?

11 What are the opportunities for older workers in business?

12. What is the social-economic status of business workers?

13 Why are business workers often given a preferred status in spite of their relative income?

14 What can be said about job sequences in business? Why?

15 In a brief essay on the future of business occupations, give a summary of the facts and understandings found in this chapter.

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CHAPTER X

Guidance in Business Education

GUIDANCE IS so important that adequate treatment of the topic would require far more space than is available in this book. This chapter will be limited, therefore, to a brief summary of guidance problems and to suggestions for applications of guidance to business education.

In this discussion, guidance is regarded as that phase of the educational process in which conscious, organized planning for the future is a primary, rather than a secondary purpose. All effective education is vocational in so far as the knowledge acquired is useful for occupational life. Likewise, all education has guidance value, but to look upon it as occupational guidance only (except philosophically) destroys the value of the concept of guidance for specific purposes.

High school students have a very limited understanding of occupational opportunities. Of the many thousands of occupations from which to choose, the great majority of boys selects such occupations as medicine, law, business (general), engineering, and aviation. Girls, just as typically, select teaching, music, and stenographic work. This limitation of choice shows the need for thorough occupational instruction, so as to make students aware of the many other vocations that have excellent possibilities for satisfactory living.

CURRENT CONCEPTS OF GUIDANCE

An early concept of guidance was that each person had specific talents that a guidance expert could detect and thereby settle forever that

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than none, for they give the guise of scientific procedures. Guidance workers do not at present have a knowledge of the types of personal characteristics that are likely to result in success in various types of occupations. Counseling procedures are still largely on the rule-of-thumb level. In spite of this, however, there is enough information that, when used with common-sense techniques, should help young persons to select their vocations intelligently rather than accidentally or on the basis of some petty circumstance, such as knowing someone who is interested in going into a certain occupation. Young persons need help in choosing their vocations. Guidance should be based upon adequate provision for exploratory programs. Even after a program has been chosen and training actually started, there should be opportunity for reconsideration to decide whether the choice has been a wise one.

There is little doubt that, at present, most guidance programs in the schools are defective. Many persons go into guidance work because they think it is easy, or because it is a "new wrinkle." Yet it must be obvious to everyone that provision for training without suitable guidance inevitably will be wasteful. In fact, in most cases, further job training can hardly be encouraged unless adequate procedures for guidance are coupled with this new training area.

GUIDANCE SHOULD BE CONTINUOUS

Most people, probably, would be happy in any one of a number of occupations. Vocational life is so complex, and individual characteristics are so diversified, that no scientific devices can guide a student to the one vocation that he can pursue most satisfactorily for the rest of his life. Students must make their own decisions in such matters, and no choice should be regarded as final.

Unforeseen events may completely change a person's outlook. Human life involves, as a rule, the need for making successive changes, therefore, guidance in school should be a continuous process. At present, no guidance service is available that can help a student make all his decisions, either occupational or nonoccupational.

Schools are organized so as to ensure that specific abilities are developed. Guidance is needed at certain stages of a student's career because the unspecialized and unplanned activities of life do not provide him with a basis for making wise vocational decisions.

person's occupational problem. This assumption argues that human beings have more or less fixed abilities and that occupations have definite requirements, neither of which is true. Guidance procedures in school are now based upon the following concepts:

1. A person can be trained for many occupations. Business, therefore, has found it desirable to adapt occupational opportunities to individual abilities rather than ask individuals to do all the adapting. The normal person can fit into several, and possibly many, occupations equally well.

2. Nevertheless individuals do have differences in original capacity and in developed interests. These should be taken into account in the selection of a vocation.

3. There is, moreover, an increasing specialization in all occupational life that makes it even more important than in previous periods to choose an occupation wisely, not only in the limited area of specialization but also in the general area of occupational interest.

4. It is taking longer to prepare for most occupations than it did in periods of less occupational specialization. Most of this preparation is, however, of a general nature rather than aimed at a specific occupation. The specific specialization usually requires a briefer period of training, and most of that must be acquired in connection with a particular job.

5. Admission to certain forms of occupational life is becoming increasingly difficult because of union restrictions, license requirements and similar hurdles.

6. The school is, therefore, in a unique position to help the prospective worker make a wise occupational choice.

7. Guidance should not be arbitrary, dogmatic, or imposed. It should be advisory and must aim to increasingly develop the person's ability to achieve self-guidance.

LIMITATIONS OF GUIDANCE

The essential information needed for perfect guidance is lacking. It is doubtful under the current economic system whether it can ever be obtained completely. Much can be done, however, to improve present procedures. For example, the tools for individual study that are now being used are quite unreliable, in fact, in some cases, they are worse.

fact that many occupations draw upon similar talents should be made clear. Consideration should be given to evidences of natural ability and to correlation of acquired abilities. Fundamental economic trends, such as the tendency toward increasing specialization and the paradox of the resulting need for more unspecialized training should be pointed out. Detailed information should be given about the requirements, opportunities, and difficulties of various business occupations.

In giving courses on occupational life, a sensible balance of subject matter should be maintained. Obviously a considerable portion of time should be devoted to how school training of various types can prepare for work. Possibly about one half the time might be given to the more common occupations. If the course is given to business students, then the greater part of the time should be devoted to the more usual business occupations, but some consideration should be given to how these occupations are related to industrial and service occupations and to the professions. Employer-employee relations and other problems of work life should also receive attention.

The form in which this information is presented should be determined by the use to be made of it. For themselves, teachers need complete statistical data, but this material must be simplified and presented in such form that it will appeal to students. Brief, attractively illustrated statements, less than half a dozen pages in length, serve students and their parents much better than longer statements.² A short list of references should be added to such leaflets. It is important to check the validity of information about occupations. Often some authority makes a guess, this is quoted as an estimate, and then requoted as a truth. Such misinformation placed in the hands of young persons can easily result in unwise occupational choice.

Some of the information associated with the second step in guidance can be imparted in the elementary school and in the junior high school, particularly in classes in elementary business training, where an occupational consciousness may be developed, and where specific guidance courses should be offered.

The guidance course should be given toward the end of the junior

² See for example, *You as a Secretary* Alpha Chapter Delta Pi Epsilon published by the School Department of The Royal McBee Corporation Port Chester, New York.

Vocational guidance is the phase of guidance with which this book is primarily concerned, although that is by no means the whole function of guidance. The definition of this function, here accepted, is embodied in the frequently quoted statement

Vocational guidance is the practice of assisting a person to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter it, and progress in it

FUNCTIONS OF GUIDANCE

Among the functions of guidance are

Assembling information	Placing the student in the school
Imparting information	and in a job
Prognosticating aptitudes	Following up to determine suc-
Counseling the student	cess of guidance

These functions are not to be treated discriminately, nevertheless, though they overlap, they should be handled in at least three stages, as follows

1 The development of general occupational consciousness, so that the student begins to consider the type of occupation that he would like to follow

2 Prevocational guidance—helping the student to determine his choice

3 Specific training for a given occupation

Assembling Information about Business Occupations A vast amount of material on business occupations is available, much of it in professional magazines for teachers. The *Occupational Index*,¹ which is annotated, classified, and cumulative, is a valuable key to current literature. From such sources, an adequate reference library may be built up, consisting of books on occupations in general, business occupations, and such related topics as labor legislation, child labor laws, wage- and hour laws, and social security legislation.

Imparting Information Imparting information is the second step in guidance. Here the element of chance should be stressed, the complex abilities required for various occupations should be clarified, and the

¹ Occupational Index, Inc., New York University, New York 3, New York.

fact that many occupations draw upon similar talents should be made clear. Consideration should be given to evidences of natural ability and to correlation of acquired abilities. Fundamental economic trends, such as the tendency toward increasing specialization and the paradox of the resulting need for more unspecialized training should be pointed out. Detailed information should be given about the requirements, opportunities, and difficulties of various business occupations.

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high school program and should be taught by one who has a broad acquaintance with business life. Often a teacher who has taken courses in personnel or guidance, but who has had little or no actual business experience, is assigned to this task. The knowledge he presents is, therefore, inclined to be academic and unrealistic. One of the several good vocational information tests that are available should be used to help determine adequacy of learning.

Prognosticating Aptitudes An important aspect of any guidance program is the recognition of the differences between innate and acquired abilities and interests. The degree of specialized ability should be determined, although extremes of *ability* do not occur frequently. On the other hand, specialized *interests* are common. They must also be recognized.

The chief means of analyzing pupils is by formal and informal testing. General achievement and intelligence tests have considerable value, although recent research has shown that a person's I Q cannot be determined within a point or two. Educators recognize the futility of making absolute judgments on the basis of one intelligence test, and are even not too dogmatic about the results of a combination of tests.

Aptitude tests should be utilized to the extent to which they have been developed. In the field of business education, however, aptitude tests (that is, tests that are primarily prognostic) have not been particularly successful. Aptitude tests in business education are often nothing more than intelligence tests with special adaptations. As a rule, their results are no more satisfactory than those that can be obtained from good general intelligence tests. Prognostic tests in shorthand and in typing have been developed that also attempt to determine one or more phases of a prospective student's manipulative skill. Thus far, the relation between the prognosis and success in schoolwork in these subjects, let alone on the job, has not been found very high. The best of these tests are worth using though they may not be a much better means of prognosis than a general intelligence test, their use may stimulate interest and develop rapport.

In the wholly admirable zeal for definitely determining the relation of personality to job selection, many teachers and pupils alike have become prey to test makers whose products are little short of charlatanry. In recent years, certain educational opportunists have developed procedures for handwriting analysis, ink blot study, and facile check

lists which are supposed to indicate the testee's best vocational goals. Such mystical cure-alls are less helpful than time tested patent medicines. They are the nadir of scientific accuracy and little short of "bump" reading methods of character analysis. They are, in fact, worse because they attempt to produce positive results. Some high-sounding analysis schemes unfortunately are taken seriously, although they are nothing more than half-baked ideas for making money and have only the slightest claim to scientific validity.

Undoubtedly, some tests of achievement, intelligence, and aptitude will show that many students will not succeed in a given occupation because of intellectual inadequacy, however, they will not reveal differences among individual students who have the same level of ability. An estimate must also be made of the student's personality traits. Teacher estimates, self rating methods, group conferences, and other procedures should be utilized. Trade tests are more valuable in occupational selection than they are in general guidance.

All the data obtained from the analysis of each student should be recorded on report forms. Without adequate records, the work of guidance cannot be undertaken satisfactorily. Only really useful facts should be recorded, otherwise the cumulation of information becomes confusing and is likely to be discarded. Records should be organized, therefore, so as to show their significance, and they should be cumulative, so that an increasing volume of information about each pupil may be recorded.

In setting up shop, some guidance specialists spend so much time accumulating records that they never get around to using them. Vast quantities of useless data, gathered at great expense and effort, are periodically thrown away after having cluttered files for many years. To give guidance without basic data, however, is difficult and time consuming. A minimum continuous record for every student will include personal data, school grades, personality indexes where evident, key test scores, and special problems. Later placement and follow up records may be included. The important thing is to keep the record as brief, as simple, and as accurate as possible. It is useless, unfair and poor guidance to have a student in the fourth grade take a poorly administered intelligence test. The results may plague him for the rest of his school life, simply because it is the only intelligence test he took and because teachers are foolish enough to take such carelessly accumulated results seriously.

Counseling the Pupil The classroom teacher and the home teacher will probably serve as primary counselors for most pupils. Increasingly, however, guidance is being delegated to a school counselor or staff of counselors. Specialization enables the guidance officer to develop particular techniques and to become more familiar with the record-keeping procedure. Problem cases, of course, confront many counselors, in such cases psychiatrists render invaluable service.

Nevertheless, at all levels, the personal acquaintance of the teacher who has had a student in several classes is an invaluable aid that must not be overlooked. In large schools, where a student has a new session or home teacher and five or more different class teachers each term, a basic element in good counseling is lost—the personal relationship but disinterested attitude of teachers who understand the pupil's personality as no test can reveal. Provision can be made for personalized knowledge of each student by at least one teacher in every school if the administration will but plan for it. Experts who must counsel a thousand students lose the personal interest without which guidance can rarely succeed. No matter how perfect the records, they are generally futile if the guidance interview is limited to a ten minute session once a year, or even once a term.

Guidance procedures are not so perfect that they can be dehumanized. No guidance expert, regardless of his good intentions, can spread his personal interest among several hundred students. A well meaning teacher with the aid of a guidance expert can, however, easily give this personal understanding to thirty to fifty students for whom he alone is primarily responsible for the four year, or even three-year, period of high school training. Naturally, each teacher must have limited but reasonable opportunity for selecting those students with whom he can establish the rapport that is such an essential preliminary to good guidance.

The guidance officer should have a realistic understanding of the classroom situation. Frequently, being a specialist, he forgets the teacher's problems. On the other hand, the counselor's function is more than that of disciplinarian for the school or planner of the program of study. Discipline and curriculum making are vital aspects of modern school life, but they should not be confused with guidance. The three functions are interrelated, but the nature of each should be kept clearly in mind.

Placement a Function of Vocational Guidance The difficulties of placement, which is one of the functions of vocational guidance, have already been partially discussed. The fact that shorthand, typewriting and bookkeeping courses offer concrete occupational training magnifies the problem. The inability to discriminate between students on the basis of prognostic tests and other procedures makes it difficult to eliminate undesirable trainees, and many are allowed to register who can benefit only slightly from commercial subjects.

Countless problems will be avoided if students are allowed to drop these courses as soon as they become aware of their unfitness. Indeed, the number of drop-outs makes it increasingly imperative that the secondary school provide other types of vocational training. Only as other job-training opportunities are opened in the school can the less fit be kept away from business training. Even then a large number of students will have to be made aware of the fact that the secondary school is not able to give them technical training.

Job placement is the responsibility of the school as well as of the student himself. Frequently, one teacher is charged with this important task on a part time basis. Whoever is responsible for placement should have definite contacts with prospective employers, should be free to leave the school building during school hours for conferences, and should make full use of other placement agencies. The placement officer should also utilize the contacts that students make through acquaintances, friends, and relatives. High-grade private employment agencies, government agencies, and the newspapers are valuable aids in placement.

The school is the logical placement agency, at least for the beginning job. This is especially true in the middle-sized community where there is only one primarily vocational school, or a few schools each having a unique vocational objective. If one of these schools is almost entirely concerned with specific training for business occupations and is located in the business district of the city, it is in an excellent position to carry on a placement program.

On the other hand, if the vocational training is carried on in fifty high schools scattered all over the city, businessmen will become bewildered in knowing where to look. Policies will be varied, and as a result, confusion will arise. Under such conditions it may be wise to set up a centrally located or, at least, a regional placement service within the

community. These should be especially set up to meet the needs of students who, because of their limited background, require specialized attention.

The private, and particularly the public, employment services for several reasons do not render as efficient service as they might. Sometimes when the public services set up branch offices in the school, their work becomes more satisfactory so far as the school is concerned. Governmental employment services seem to become overmechanized and concerned with the placement of large numbers of people in large enterprises. There is little reason why this should be so, however, the fact remains that it is true.

There is no need for a feeling of competition or of duplication between placement services of the public schools and those of other agencies if the schools will limit their work to initial placement and subsequent follow up in the first levels of job experience. This will be true especially if intelligent co-operative procedures are worked out.

The Follow up to Determine Whether Guidance Has Been Successful
The placement officer should not neglect the follow-up, which offers a means of replanning the work of guidance and of helping the student to gain promotion in his job. To the worker, the follow-up provides an impetus to work for advancement and a realization that someone is interested in him, it makes him conscious of the possibilities of advancement and provides adjustment should the initial job placement be unsatisfactory. The follow up is important, also, to the employer, with whom the school should keep in close touch.

Obviously, there are many difficulties in maintaining an efficient follow up system. The follow up should concern itself with adequacy of salary, promotional opportunity, guidance in training leaders, and the types of preparation needed for special positions.

Merely helping a student make a wise occupational choice is not enough. He must be helped to acquire initial placement. Some students will always do this for themselves, and under favorable labor conditions, most of them will find their own jobs. This is highly desirable in the present type of economic society, for it must be remembered that the capitalistic system always tends to give a premium to individual enterprise. It should also be remembered that the individual worker in a capitalistic society is in a sense, an individual enterprise to the extent

that he uses his technical skills (his capital) as a basis for obtaining a job that pays better than the absolute minimum that is available for unskilled labor

Certain students, nevertheless, will not, for any one of several possible reasons, find jobs for which they are fitted. For that reason, the school must make opportunities available. Then, too, students may be discouraged from entering certain types of jobs, either because they are socially undesirable or because they may be blind alley jobs. Sometimes they must rely upon an outside profit making agency, if the school cannot meet their need.

It should be realized that the school is set up not only to get jobs for students, but also to serve the community. Businessmen, in making goods available to the community, are similarly rendering a service. If, consequently, by giving them better workers the businessmen become more efficient, the community also benefits from the school's placement and guidance of students.

When the school serves as a placement agency, it is in a better position to follow up its graduates on the job. It is able to evaluate its teaching and make any adjustments in its program of studies that may be necessary. If the placement program is assigned to some other agency, even if this is a governmental service, the school may not so easily use this means of evaluating its training. In either case, however, the school must maintain rather complete records of its products. It will then be in a better position to evaluate the personality of the individual student and determine which aspects of his training and basic abilities have resulted in a certain degree of job efficiency. Such records are not so well organized for this purpose in other placement agencies.

Placement Officer Should Attempt to Improve Techniques In undertaking the follow up of graduates and drop outs, the placement officer often comes to the conclusion that he can reduce the task to a formal survey by means of a questionnaire. Such surveys have considerable value if well done, but to list the information, to give it to superiors, and to get it published in a current periodical is not enough. When the follow up stops at this point, it is virtually useless, the guidance worker is diverted from more useful activities in order to gather data upon which to base the successful application of employment experience.

If the follow up serves as a basis for giving local recognition to nation-

ally known facts, it may be useful to a limited extent. A placement officer should not be satisfied with the accumulation of information that has been gathered for the thousandth time. He should attempt to improve the techniques of the follow up even in small details so as to develop continuously current information that will assist in improving the training, guidance, and placement programs.

INFLUENCES DIRECTING STUDENTS TOWARD BUSINESS SUBJECTS

Business education students may be classified in five groups, categorized by the influences that direct students toward business subjects.

1 Those students who hope to obtain jobs as a result of their training. They believe that business is one of the most important facets of economic life and that, because of its intricacy, special training is necessary in order to acquire employment. Although not all students who enter business education for this reason should be encouraged to continue, everything possible should be done to provide them with suitable positions when they leave.

2 Those students who wish to take commercial work because they believe it is easy. Such reasoning is fallacious, for business is just as intricate as any other part of the economic structure. Adequate understanding of business processes requires considerable attention and intelligence. This misconception is one reason why business courses are so popular in many schools.

3 Those students who are mistakenly guided into business courses by academic teachers because the students seemingly lack the necessary aptitudes for academic study. This is a misconceived procedure that should be discouraged as much as possible, although not all students who do inferior work in academic subjects should be refused admittance to business courses. There is just as much room for the mediocre student in business as in other phases of economic life. In business courses, as in academic courses, a vertical cross section of student ability is desirable (including the poorest and the best), rather than a horizontal cross section that excludes all those not of at least average ability.

4 Those students who are captivated by the lure of business as it is colorfully painted in fiction and sensational biography.

5 Those students (a large group) who are encouraged to take business subjects by their parents, who regard business as a means by which their children may improve their social and economic status.

Groups 4 and 5 are motivated by hopes that are partly illusory. Some aspects of business life are not alluring. Students should be made aware of the facts, then, if they are still interested, they should be encouraged to continue with a business career.

INFLUENCES DRIVING STUDENTS AWAY FROM BUSINESS SUBJECTS

Equally important are the following factors that influence students to avoid business subjects:

- 1 Many students have been told by others that business studies are difficult. This is as fallacious as the belief that they are easy.
- 2 Many boys avoid business subjects because they believe that they are primarily for girls.
- 3 The assertion is often made that business courses are designed chiefly for boys and girls who wish to become clerks.
- 4 Many parents believe that their children will be refused admission to college if they specialize in business courses. Except for a few conservative colleges in the eastern states, this is largely untrue.
- 5 There is a group of students, usually of high caliber, who are advised not to take business subjects by their elementary school principals or by grade advisers in high school.

The strength of influences 4 and 5 increased in the late 1950's. The insistence on an increased number of the so-called solids has had serious influence on business subject enrollments. A complete discussion of this problem is found in Chapter XVII (pp. 263-267).

The last three reasons, at least in some schools, are partly true. School administrators and parents should be more accurately informed, and the business curriculum should be reorganized wherever necessary, so that these deterrent influences will be eliminated.

GUIDANCE IN TECHNICAL BUSINESS SUBJECTS

The teacher should, in the first place, see that the students really understand the type of job for which they are preparing. If they have unwarranted expectations of pay, promotional opportunities, length of training, and the like, such exaggerated ideas can be corrected during the first few periods of classroom training.

Then, after a trial period of training, the teacher should direct to

obtain remunerative employment Prognostic tests furnish only a partially satisfactory basis for guidance

Students and parents often prefer the business course to academic subjects because the business course gives the high school graduate a better chance of getting a job Until other types of vocational training are offered, many boys and girls will prefer business education

Guidance continues to remain one of the key jobs of the teacher and especially of the business teacher Students will always require and appreciate sympathetic understanding from a person with more occupational experience than they have The fact that no teacher can have a complete awareness of all the occupational shifts that are taking place should not prevent the teacher from giving help Limited help in making occupational decisions especially if the teacher lets the student know the limitations, is far better than permitting the student to make decisions based upon error, myth, and complete ignorance

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 What influences direct students to take or to skip business subjects?
 - 2 Contrast the older and newer concepts of guidance
 - 3 List some references for the guidance of high school business students
 - 4 Why is the analysis of the individual person important in guidance?
- What means and techniques are available for the study of individual students?
- 5 In what way is follow up a phase of the placement problem?
 - 6 Upon whom rests the responsibility for placement?
 - 7 Name typical weaknesses in the follow up technique
 - 8 What place is there for guidance in technical business subjects?
 - 9 What contribution can the social business subjects make to guidance?
 - 10 What are the inevitable limitations of school guidance? Why?

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CHAPTER XI

Standards in Business Education

TWO TYPES of standards concern business teachers—learning and job-placement standards. The problem that business teachers have perennially faced in dealing with, and evaluating their achievements by these standards is because of the confusion between the two types. While one is not only desirable but also necessary in learning the basic business education skills it is often most disastrous and, in any case, completely useless when applied to job placement. This is a basic truth which most business teachers do not realize, or at least do not practice. Unfortunately, it is perpetuated in the methods they learn in many teacher training institutions.

But, businessmen in the community are also confused, and therefore instead of lessening the problem, it is accentuated because business teachers have respect for whatever the businessman says, regardless of whether he knows what he is talking about or not. Very often, in fact, the businessman is merely formulating his ideas of what is good for the school from comments which he has received from business teachers.

ELEMENTS IN DETERMINING STANDARDS

There are several problems which are significant to those who are concerned with standards for job training. Six of these have been presented by Estelle L. Popham¹ in connection with the measurement of

¹ "Measuring Competence of Students Preparing for Stenographic Position," *American Business Education Yearbook VII* New York, New York University Bookstore 1950 pp 55 56

stenographic efficiency. However, they are equally applicable to all types of business training. They are

1 Businessmen in many instances do not know what they want in terms of knowledge and skill standards.

2 Levels of competence for positions vary from office to office even within one company.

3 Business skills are measured in the office only in initial and routine jobs. Any measure of competence, then, is in terms of initial employment rather than in terms of promotions.

4 Not enough is known about the nature of office production standards to measure them by the ability of people to handle office work.

5 School conditions are so different from office conditions even in the most carefully planned situations that measurement of office undermined competence is difficult.

6 The philosophy of the modern public school is that pupils should not be failed, that receiving low grades may thwart their personality, therefore each pupil should develop in terms of his potentialities rather than in terms of any external standards.

Business teachers, like all other teachers, are concerned with fair grading, therefore they like to set up exact standards of measurement in grading their students. As a matter of fact, it must be realized that, excepting in pure mathematics, nothing with which human beings are concerned can be measured exactly. It has been said that any attempt to measure more exactly than the data and evidence permit is evidence of unscientific thinking. Yet this is exactly what business teachers have been doing in an attempt to secure exact measurements as a basis for grading. They have set up arbitrary standards, which measure only a small part of the total competency of the beginning business worker, in order to obtain definite standards. Even this small part is measured in an arbitrary and formalized manner.

ORIGINS OF STANDARDS

This tendency toward an attempt at exact measurement is possibly the result of originating most clerical job training in the schools. During the nineteenth century, when the typewriter companies were trying to prove the proficiency of their product, they sponsored contests for speed and accuracy. It was necessary to make the public, in general, and

the business community, in particular, aware of the superiority of the typewriter over handwriting for many purposes

Each typewriter company developed a group of experts whom they coached, trained, and developed in order to get the maximum number of typed words per minute. These various experts then competed with those representing other companies and, naturally, the company whose experts attained the highest number of words per minute had a splendid selling point for getting its product into offices. As time went on, speeds went from 80 words a minute to 100 words a minute, to 120 words a minute, and then to 150 words a minute and over.

As the typewriter companies secured a foothold and began to sell their machines as useful office equipment, and as they developed many sidelines corollary to the typewriter, this effort to develop speed experts as proof of a superior mechanism gradually dwindled down. But by this time, speed in terms of set words per minute became, unfortunately, the primary and in many cases the sole objective in the teaching of typewriting, both in the public schools and in the private schools.

This objective still largely dominates the teaching of typewriting and has also been applied in the teaching of shorthand. Most measurement is undertaken in terms of words per minute dictated and words per minute transcribed. Even in the field of clerical training, similar exact measurements are attempted—though fortunately with far less success, in clerical training other factors must be and are considered in giving grades.

The Federal Government and the local governments, in employing their clerical help, are naturally very anxious to formalize methods of determining who should be employed. Therefore, they have abetted the selection of clerical workers on formal bases. Many businessmen, particularly office managers in larger firms, have adopted the same system, though in some cases they are aware that their standards are not entirely satisfactory. However, again they have the problem of selecting a small number of workers from a large number of candidates. In order to overcome personality unmeasurability, they lean heavily, therefore, upon a words per minute standard to be achieved under trying conditions in an office situation. These businessmen, therefore, often select beginning workers who have immediate discernible abilities and do not choose other workers who may not have these formalized

skills to the same extent, though they may have many other potential capacities far more important for the beginning worker

BUSINESS HAS FEW DEFINITE STANDARDS

As Popham has indicated, in many instances businessmen do not know specifically what they want, and therefore their needs cannot be measured. Businessmen, for example, are quoted as saying that their standard of production is ten letters an hour with envelopes, assuming an average 20 line letter. As a matter of fact, most businessmen do not know how many letters they dictate a week. If they did know, the kinds of letters that they dictate are so variable in terms of size and difficulty of typing that the measurement often would be meaningless. Even worse is the tendency on the part of businessmen to say that they require 50, 60, 70, and even 80 words a minute on the job. This is just plain nonsense in most all cases.

Businessmen usually do not give a timed typing test, and if they do, they certainly do not follow it in the on-the-job situation. A 1933 study indicates that businessmen require 1,500 lines of typing a day. Assuming that these lines of typing involve 60 strokes as a minimum, this would require over 40 words a minute with no errors for a 7-hour day. Even in 1933, in the depth of the depression, such a standard for a 7 hour day would label the businessman a Simon Legree. At the present time, workers would quit within an hour after they had been hired—and justifiably.

Such demands might be made where the typing is highly routinized and repetitive, and where there is no interference with the routine typing, in other words, where the worker has no other duties. Such conditions can be attained only in the very largest offices where there are dozens, if not hundreds, of stenographers and typists. The usual stenographer works in an office with two or three workers, and therefore such exact measurements are impossible.

STANDARDS REQUIRE INDIVIDUAL ADJUSTMENT

Obviously, teachers must constantly be in a position to revise their standards. When, for example, they have assumed that a child has a limited capacity and then find that he is succeeding very well, they must

accordingly raise their standards for this particular individual. That is just what life does: when people are successes, greater success is expected from them, and they are considered failures when they fail to keep up their successes. Likewise, if a child who is considered capable fails, teachers should look into the situation and determine whether this failure was caused by laziness and unwillingness to work (in which case compulsion should be used) or whether they have overestimated his capacity. Naturally, all these procedures require a great deal of time. In a mass production school, typical in the United States and in most other countries, where such procedures are difficult to use, individuals often are misunderstood and therefore neglected.

Business needs high grade workers. It can also find use for the lower level of workers. This, in a way, complicates the problem, for it cannot be determined precisely at what point work has been adequately accomplished. In another sense, however, the problem is simplified, for it is now realized that different grades of work are acceptable under different conditions. The difficulty has not been due so much to the fact that standards have been too low, but that the standards have been false. For learning purposes, classroom standards may serve better than job standards, but when the student looks for a job, he should be made aware that he will have to meet job standards.

Moreover, teachers should talk to the businessman about a student's ability in terms of job standards, rather than in terms of learning or classroom standards. When teachers talk to the businessman in his own language, he is willing to recognize individual differences in ability. He recognizes them in his older employees, therefore he will be willing to recognize them in his new workers.

PROBLEMS IN DETERMINING OFFICE STANDARDS

The businessman wants an adequate amount of production of mailable letters from the typist and stenographer. Even this is very difficult to measure exactly because what is mailable for one person is often not a mailable letter for another, and a letter that is mailable for one person at one time is not mailable at another time. As a matter of fact, many office managers do not even know the cost of the letters which they send out. Yet they blandly, and often blatantly, give advice about the

nature and form of instruction which should be given in the school. In a few cases, the responsible person for such arbitrary and false advice is the businessman who gratuitously offers it. More often, it is the fault of business teachers themselves who go to a businessman for help without determining whether he is in a position to give them the kind of information which they are seeking.

A major difficulty in dealing with standardization in business education is that many teachers and businessmen alike fail to recognize that there are varying levels of competencies required in office work. Some firms, which do highly specialized high grade work, require perfect work and therefore set up high standards of service, others find a minimum clerical competency adequate. The school is in a comparable dilemma because it trains people up to various levels. These levels are determined by differences in interest, by differences in ability, and more important, by differences in learning rates. The businessman, in interviewing the high school student, however, often treats them all alike. He may not inquire whether the person before him received high grades or low grades, whether he took shorthand and typewriting for three years or for six months. It is to his own disadvantage and is also an unfair evaluation of the school to judge the student's ability in terms of a uniform situation. The businessman, however, who will pay only the lowest salary frequently can choose only from among the poorest trained and most briefly trained students, therefore, he naturally has an entirely false conception of the standards which the school has developed for its competent and recommended students.

INITIAL JOB STANDARDS

The point of greatest measurement of the high school graduate takes place in the initial job. Even then, he is usually measured only in a formal manner if he becomes a member of a stenographic pool or if he is giving routine service. When he is promoted to a higher position, exact measurement is even less possible, therefore, certain factors other than the formal initial skills are of consequence in determining whether an employee will advance to better positions. Moreover, the school is given little or no recognition for its training to prepare people to advance beyond these initial positions.

As a matter of fact, only those serving in highly specialized and unusual types of training can type at anything like uniform rate from routine copy or take dictation at standardized words per minute, yet, almost universally, standards have been set up on this basis.

In the field of shorthand, where most attempts at standardization have taken place, businessmen obviously do not dictate at a uniform rate of words a minute. Yet both teachers and businessmen still insist on rating accomplishment on this basis. All the evidence seems to indicate that this is an impossible job standard. The far more satisfactory procedure is to indicate the number of letters written during an hour or a day which are considered available.

Does all this mean, therefore, that any attempt at developing standards in the field of business and in training for business is meaningless? The answer is definitely not. Standards are vital for any effective learning. In fact, it has been said that, without measurement, any condition or activity can not be evaluated. This may be an exaggerated concept, but, for effective learning and for effective attainment on the job, there is no question that standards must be developed and that achievement on the job and in the school must be measured by them. To the degree to which standards can be set up, and to the degree to which school work and job achievement is measured by them then to that extent learning and business practice is something more than a hit and miss operation.

SCHOOL STANDARDS FOR TYPING

What, then, can we conceive as being good school and job criteria? As said in the first paragraph of this Chapter, there is no question that learning standards cannot be made identical with those for job performance. Definitive studies have not been made to prove, in a final sense, that the objective of typing a certain number of words, and of taking dictation, per minute is the best measure of school learning. Nevertheless, the consensus of experienced and competent teachers of the clerical skills seems to be that setting up a definite goal of words a minute in shorthand and typing is the most effective means of motivating learning. Therefore, in the first term of typing, as a rule, and through much of the second term of typing and even beyond it, measurement of achievement by words a minute, gross words a minute, net words

a minute, or words a minute at a given per cent of attainment seem to be not only desirable but necessary

Numerous surveys have been made to determine how much progress in net words a minute should be attained in school learning. Averages are pretty meaningless, but the general consensus of competent teachers seems to be that normally able students should usually be able to arrive at 30 net words a minute after one year of instruction in typing, and that 50 net words a minute is not an unreasonable goal after a second year, or after a year of secretarial training in which students have had good instruction in the achievement of higher speed of typing.

Unfortunately, all too many teachers limit themselves to this attainment and assume that if a person at the end of one year of typing has achieved a net of 35 words a minute, that person deserves an "A" and a person with a net of 30 words a minute deserves a "B", and so forth. That is the fallacy of measurement in terms of net words a minute. There are many other elements involved in the good learning of typing. Therefore, any other word-a-minute formula should not be permitted to monopolize measurement for grading purposes.

Does the student have typing sense? Can he produce neat letters? Can he produce stencils that can be duplicated and look neat? Does the student have a sense of organization in working out his materials? Has he learned the concomitant office attitudes that make the typist effective on the job? Answers to these and similar questions are equal, if not greater, in importance. If the teacher uses the word-a-minute rating and also gives full attention to these other factors, then the standard is not only permissible but also desirable for learning purposes. On the other hand, if the standard is used as the only means of measurement, then it is not only unwise, but also definitely harmful.

JOB STANDARDS FOR TYPING

On some jobs, the number of strokes written a day is the basis for minimum salary and for bonuses, however, this is unusual. The work of the competent typist on the job is generally measured by the number of usable pages of typed material produced. A more practical standard might be that of producing eight pages an hour of manuscript of approximately 250 words a page, assuming copy to be a clear and reasonably legible draft. If the copy material is in very rough draft

form, then obviously the speed will be reduced a great deal, and it would be unreasonable to expect that a worker on the job could, therefore, produce 56 pages of manuscript material in a day. Under high pressure conditions this, and possibly more, could be achieved, but typically it is an impossible task. The usual office manager, if he knows what is actually going on and has bases for measurement, would (under present-day conditions) be impressed with 40 pages output of usable and clear manuscript in a day.

SCHOOL STANDARDS FOR SHORTHAND

As in the case of typing, there is no serious objection to setting shorthand standards in terms of words per minute with 90 or 95 per cent degree of accuracy transcription rate while students are learning. Certainly, the ability to take dictation at 80 words a minute and to transcribe this material into a mailable transcript is not unreasonable to expect. In fact, it is probably very low. If two years of time is devoted to learning shorthand in the secondary school, then the first major goal of the shorthand teacher should be the attainment of a minimum speed of 80 words a minute and the ability to transcribe that work at approximately 25 words a minute, assuming reasonably simple types of dictation. However, once this speed, or a reasonably higher degree of speed such as 90 words a minute, has been attained, what then should be the goal of the shorthand teacher? Traditionally, the goal has been to attain a still higher speed such as 100, 110, and 120 words a minute.

In spite of all the talk about achieving a higher number of words a minute in secondary-school work, the fact of the matter is that in two years of shorthand training students usually do not attain rates higher than this. In fact, in the New York State Regents Examinations, which are about as effective and objective a measure as possible, after two years of shorthand instruction the students are required to be able to take dictation at 80 words a minute and transcribe these brief letters into mailable form. In spite of the fact that a considerable number of students drop out, the rate of failure on these Regents examinations is quite high. The practical, everyday evidence is that in most other states the standards of actual achievement are lower, rather than higher, than those attained in New York State. Obviously, if a higher rate of words a minute can be attained, this is all to the good, and where students can be

so trained without neglect of the other more important factors, this is a desirable achievement

JOB STANDARDS FOR SHORTHAND AND TRANSCRIPTION

The beginning office worker is measured not in terms of ability to take high speeds of dictation and shorthand, but rather to transcribe this material into mailable form. The businessman does not complain about the inability of stenographers to take dictation at a given speed unless he is asked to state his requirements. He is very much concerned that letters that are given to him to be signed make sense, that there are no errors in addition or in spelling, and that the letter is thoroughly presentable. When asked for a rate of speed a minute, businessmen will indicate a given number of words at which they give their dictation. They may say 100 words a minute, 120 words a minute, and even 150 words a minute.

Businessmen quite generally do not know the rate at which they give dictation. They try to impress the teacher with a high standard which they suppose to be the teacher's objective. Such statements are almost universally pulled out of the thin air and are sheer guesswork. The usual rate of dictation of businessmen has been shown by several studies to be around 60 words a minute. Occasionally some businessmen do dictate at a higher rate, but it is quite probable that these businessmen not only do not use beginning stenographers but also recognize the unfairness of attempting to use beginning stenographers for such work. It is true that for very brief spurts businessmen do dictate at higher rates a minute. However, it is quite clear that having dictated at a higher rate of words a minute for 10 seconds, or so, they will thereafter decrease their speed well below the average for a comparable period of time.

Thus, for most beginning positions, 80 words a minute dictation ability is ample, provided the student has learned to take dictation as it is actually given on the job with hesitations, corrections, adjustments, interludes, asides, and interruptions for answering the telephone and the like. In addition to not knowing at what rate they dictate, businessmen do not even know the number of letters they expect to have produced in a day. This does not mean that businessmen are careless and do not know their business. They are aware that the usual stenographer

does many things on the job in addition to taking dictation—she receives callers, she takes care of some of the office housekeeping, she answers the telephone, she may do some record keeping, and a multitude of other duties

A high, but not unreasonable, standard for a stenographic service in an office would be that of taking 30 letters of around 240 to 250 words a letter and transcribing these letters into mailable, usable form in a 7 hour day This, however, assumes that the stenographer has few other duties The businessman who could secure such service at the present time would be very fortunate indeed

STANDARDS IN BOOKKEEPING

Standards of achievement are much more difficult to set up in the area of bookkeeping First, there are so many varieties of bookkeeping occupations as compared to the relatively simple and unified activity standards that can be provided in the field of shorthand and typing Second, accuracy and competency in achieving certain end goals, such as a trial balance and the setting up of statements for the accountant, are far more important than numbers of entries accomplished Whether the teacher should or can set up certain goals of achievement, such as the ability to make opening entries, closing entries, adjusting entries and to set up a work sheet, and then make certain that his students have thoroughly mastered these particular competencies, is questionable

When the beginning worker in record keeping graduates from high school, he rarely, if ever, undertakes activities on the job of the type indicated before He makes entries into a cashbook or some form of journal quite frequently, he often posts to some one of many varieties of ledgers, he does occasionally take a trial balance from the ledger, he does occasionally, with training and sometimes without training, operate a simple statement bookkeeping type of machine Training for these competencies is not ordinarily given on a job level basis in the secondary school The discussion, therefore, about lack of competency in these skills as a phase of bookkeeping instruction is not relevant However, the school may be open to criticism for failure to teach such competencies

The extent to which the present objectives of bookkeeping instruc-

tion in the school are desirable or undesirable will be discussed in the chapter concerned with the bookkeeping program in the secondary school. The other elements of record keeping, which might be measured more exactly, will be considered under clerical training.

Bookkeeping standards in school must continue to be set up as academic goals, rather than on the basis of actual job needs. This is because much of what is taught in the bookkeeping program can, by a wide stretch of imagination, be classified only as having a remote possibility of job value to the initial bookkeeping worker.

STANDARDS FOR CLERICAL WORK

In the field of clerical service, suggestions have been made for standards which include filing or pulling cards at the rate of 300 an hour, setting up stencils of around 200 words a stencil, about 5 an hour, filling in addresses on form letters by typewriter, about a hundred to 150 an hour. When it comes to the operation of various forms of adding and calculating machine operation, standards must be dealt with more carefully. Consider, for example, the suggestion that, in the computation of a payroll where the elements of base pay, premium, and numbers of hours of service are involved somewhere around 150 computations should be made an hour.

Care must be used in translating this type of standard into other office situations. How simple are the wages an hour? On what basis is premium pay determined? What kind of standards are set up for rewarding achievement and the like? Some progress has been made in setting up sufficiently organized standards for specific purposes to be used in specialized conditions. With some common sense, these can be translated into other learning conditions and job performance standards. Nevertheless, such great care must be taken in utilizing these types of standards that a great deal more space than is available in this text would be needed for anything more than a highly superficial opinion as to their specific value. References in this particular area are given at the end of this chapter.

Most so-called initial bookkeeping positions are really clerical positions. The bookkeeping activities of clerks include some of the following activities: posting from a journal of some form to a ledger of some type by hand, making entries in a form of journal by hand from original

the office before entrance upon a job, the loss in efficiency between the school and the job would be negligible. In other words, if higher speeds of stenography and transcribing can be acquired and other factors in job success can also be learned in school, this will solve the problem. If, however, it means (as it usually does) that, in gaining a higher speed of typing and shorthand, other factors are neglected, then a high rate of words a minute is undesirable.

NEED FOR STANDARDS

The statements made in the preceding paragraph should not be construed as meaning that standards in teaching are not important. In fact, they are vitally necessary in the achievement of effective learning because the more specialized a job is, the more it is concerned with a definite skill and the more definitely specific standards can be determined. But in the highly specific skills of shorthand, typing, and some of the office machine operations, this is not nearly so tangible as teachers and businessmen alike have traditionally assumed. When the more general character and personal traits are considered and when certain positions are primarily concerned with such trait patterns (such as managerial service or sales service), then the standards must be extremely flexible.

Standards in these areas cannot be general but must be set up for each particular situation. The important thing that every teacher of business subjects must realize is the necessity of having standards and reasonably high standards. It is far better to have even as crude a one as a net number of words a minute than to do without any because that means that the teacher and the student's will be playing with learning, rather than working for attainment. This holds true as much in the academic areas of learning as it does in the more vocational areas of skilled learning, such as shorthand typing, and specific clerical operations.

The teacher who ignores accuracy because he cannot measure accuracy with a high degree of refinement, is doing himself, his student's, and his community irreparable damage.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the elements in determining standards according to Popham? Why are they important?

2 Why is it important to know how our present standards in business subjects were established?

3 Most standards for clerical work are indicated specifically and yet the opinion expressed in this chapter is that business has few definite standards. How can this be?

4 Why do standards require individual adjustment?

5 What are the problems in determining office standards?

6 Should the school set up its standards in terms of initial or regular job standards?

7 Is there justification for a differentiation between school and job standards?

8 Indicate some usual school and job standards in typing, in shorthand, in transcription

9 What is the nature of standards of performance in bookkeeping?

10 How valid are the standards for the usual clerical operations?

11 How effective are standards in merchandising? How must they be applied?

12 How does the economic situation of the country influence standards?

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CHAPTER XII

Work Experience in Business Education

THE TRADITIONAL METHOD of learning a job skill is to actually work on the job, that is, to learn to do by doing. This is the method by which people have learned job skills since Biblical times. A more organized form of this was the apprenticeship method of training wherein a boy of about the age of 14 was apprenticed to a master for a period of one to five years, depending on the technicalities of the occupation. In return for work done for the master, the apprentice was trained in the arts of the master's occupation. At the close of the period of learning, the apprentice undertook the performance of a masterpiece. The job proficiency of the "masterpiece," whether it was making a pair of shoes or writing a beautiful piece of manuscript, singing a song, or transferring a set of records from one group of books to another, was judged by a group of masters in the local community. After the boy had completed his apprenticeship, he became a journeyman, that is, he journeyed into various parts of the country practicing his skill for brief periods of time in various communities, so that he would get a rounded understanding of the occupation, supplementary to that which he had learned from his master. Only after a period of journeymanship could a worker himself become a master.

METHODS OF JOB LEARNING

The apprentice method of job learning was never used to any great extent in this country. Modern technological industry has caused the old-fashioned apprenticeship system to break down in most occu-

pations even in Europe. The formal substitute for apprenticeship¹ learning methods is to have the student go to school for a period of years in order to learn the job skill. This has been found not entirely satisfactory because the method of learning a skill in a nonjob environment is necessarily somewhat theoretical and academic. In some occupations the school situation is highly academic and theoretical, in other occupations the school learning can be close to the actual job situation. Nevertheless, the fact remains that, valuable as school training for a particular job is, the only real experience resulting in job ability is actual experience on the job. In recent years, therefore, educators and businessmen alike have insisted increasingly upon the value of organized job experience as the key phase of the learning program. There are various forms of work experience.

ON-THE-JOB LEARNING AS WORK EXPERIENCE

On the-job training has been found effective in many industries. A worker is hired with little or no knowledge of the skill he is to undertake and is given training on the job by a skilled worker. In some occupations this is moderately satisfactory. In many occupations it is quite unsatisfactory. In an increasing number of cases it is found that learning limited to the job situation is not entirely satisfactory because often the skilled operator is a poor teacher. The skilled operator, moreover, has his own job to do and is unable, and at times even unwilling, to give the new worker all the skill that he needs in order to become a really effective worker. In theory, the competent worker should get satisfaction from teaching the new workers. In practice, he often finds it wise not to tell more than necessary. In theory, the supervisor who has trained one of his subordinates to take his place has made himself available for promotion. Often in practice, he has made himself vulnerable to dismissal when business slows down. The problem of getting work out on time and with the kind of proficiency required on the job necessarily interferes with the learning process.

¹ The use of the term *apprentice* for an occupational title during an initiation period in certain industrial unions should not be confused with the European concept of apprenticeship. While there are certain identical elements in the two concepts, the European concept is primarily one of training—the union use of the term involves large elements of control of labor supply.

This was not true in the old days where a skilled worker undertook the entire process of an industrial occupation. Now, when work has been in many cases, highly specialized, the skilled worker himself is not in a position to give the new worker the rounded understanding of the skill which he is performing and which he needs in order to do his job not only effectively, but also with comprehension and interest.

REIMBURSED CO OPERATIVE TRAINING AS WORK EXPERIENCE

Co operative training is a highly effective method of giving work experience. Some forms of co operative training in distributive training may be federally reimbursed. Co operative work experience can be organized in several different ways. The simplest, most popular, and, in many cases, the most effective is that in which the students work for one, two, or more hours every afternoon. The students take two, three, or even more subjects during the morning usually under the guidance of their co operating teacher. In the afternoon they go on the job, again under the general supervision of their co operating teacher. In many communities, these students are also given an opportunity for service on one or more evenings during the week and full time on Saturdays. In some cases provision is also made for permitting the students to be away from the school full time just before Christmas and again just before Easter.

Another form, which is also quite popular, is that of having two students matched. One student is in school full time one week, and his partner is on the job full time for the week. The next week each takes the other's place. Thus the employer always has a full time worker, and one of the two is always in school. Several other forms of work-experience procedures are used. In some communities, the students stay in school for six weeks and then go out on the job for six weeks. Another procedure allows one month in school and one month out, with students (in some cases) alternating with each other.

The closer the work experience is to the actual job situation, the better. The more the work done on the job is similar to the learning in the school, and the more the work in the school supplements and gives further understanding to the skills being undertaken on the job, the better the work experience. The co-operative work experience learner

should undertake situations as exactly similar to those of the job as they possibly can be made. He should be given at least the minimum hourly wage, punch the time clock if one is used in the office, and should be held to all regulations for other workers, during the period in which he is performing the job.

As in all other forms of training, the teacher or co-ordinator is the key to the student's success. If he keeps on the job, gets the good will of employers, and makes certain that there is mutual understanding, the program is likely to go well. The co-ordinator must sell his program to the merchants and office managers. He must visit the store and office often enough to see that the program is progressing. He must interpret the program to the school administration, to the academic teachers, and even to other business teachers. He must make certain that school work is really co-ordinated with job experience and *vice versa*.

Nonreimbursed Co-operative Training

Co-operative experience can often be very valuable, even if the businessman is not able to pay the student for his service. The Federal Government evidently does not consider this form of co-operative work experience as valuable as that which is reimbursed because usually the Federal Government will be participating in the payment of the co-operating teacher. In its ideal form there is no question that co-operative experience in which the student is paid for a service and is supervised by a teacher who has actual work experience himself is more effective than any other form of work experience. Nevertheless, in many cases nonreimbursed office or sales training on the job is found to be as effective, and occasionally more effective. It can be undertaken with less formality in some cases, and it is easier to get businessmen to accept it.

Nevertheless, there are serious limitations to nonreimbursed co-operative experience. In some communities, if the student who is working is not paid, there are serious legal complications. Moreover, if the student produces meaningful work, the labor unions will sometimes object to this type of service for which pay is not received. The fact of the matter is, however, that far more students achieve work experience of this type than that which is available for reimbursement to the state and

local community by the Federal Government. Unfortunately, not so many data are available on this form of training as on the reimbursed form of co operative experience.

Self-secured Employment As Job Experience

A most valuable experience which students receive, and which is usually not recognized by the school at all, is that which they acquire on their own. Many students in college, and even in high school, earn considerable sums of money after school on jobs which they have secured by their own initiative and of which the school usually knows little or nothing. In some cases, this work experience is rather far removed from the kind of job training the student is receiving in school. Unfortunately, this is also true of much school co ordinated job experience.

Even marginal job experience is useful because the student is actually learning how people act on the job and what it means to be paid for actual service. Students get a job consciousness which they do not get on a theoretical basis, nevertheless, out of-school learning should be given some definite relationship to the training being received in the school. School people have not taken advantage of the use that could be made of such experience in motivating school learning.

Out of Class Work Experience

In many school systems, opportunities are provided within the school for work experience in stenographic, clerical, and even sales service. Students are assigned to departmental chairmen, to the school office, and to the board of education to give service in fields in which the students have been trained. Unfortunately, in many cases this type of service is limited to students who are especially capable, and these students are used for longer periods of time than can profitably benefit them. On the other hand, the less capable students, who probably need the training even more, are often neglected because the school clerks and other administrative officers are naturally reluctant to be constantly serving as teachers of new students. To cope with this difficulty, provision can be made for having new students trained by the older students in many

cases This, however, also requires a considerable program in order to be effective

Worklike Experience in the Classroom

Worth while joblike experiences can be given in the classroom itself Students can do a moderate amount of work for the school during the class period If this is carried to excess, it will unquestionably lead to exploitation that is likely to be disastrous to the organized classroom learning Nevertheless, those teachers who, in order to avoid this danger, refuse to give any kind of service work for the school are also being unjustifiably arbitrary They deprive their students of a valuable learning experience The common sense teacher, who is always examining the job value of the learning experiences, can inject a great deal of realism into such experiences Particularly in clerical training secretarial training, and other forms of office training, the work can be made quite joblike if the facilities are adequate and if the teacher is willing to put forth the effort to simulate real office situations

WORK EXPERIENCE AND THE BUSINESSMAN

One of the faults of high school business education is that much of it is theoretical rather than practical The solution of the problem of how to combine theoretical and practical education seems to depend on some form of co-operation between schools and industry The value of co-operative training was first demonstrated in professional schools When first introduced into the public schools, co-operative training was applied only to industrial education

Because private industry furnishes most of the practical experience the reciprocal relation between school and office permits the student to make the fullest use of office equipment This time schedule is an administrative detail From the employer's point of view, the most important elements of the co-operative plan are wise selection of workers and thoroughly co-ordinated instruction From the standpoint of the school and the student the most important feature is the understanding of theory through practical application of the knowledge learned

Co-operative training in business education has been most effective

the opportunity to live a regular school life. The students are not generally able to participate in the extra curricular activities of the school. They are deprived of the period of relaxation in the late afternoon which, it is felt, the adolescent should have. Co-operative students, moreover, are in many cases set apart from the many other students. In some cases the parents object because the children receive money, because the students have means of their own, they are overanxious to demonstrate their independence from the parents. Some parents therefore feel that students achieve freedom from the control of the home before they are ready emotionally to appreciate this freedom. Many teachers will admit that this is a detrimental effect of work experience, but feel that the program has so many compensations that these minor elements can be resolved.

Some of those who have had experience with the co-operative program feel that it has little to contribute to education. J. Marshall Hanna, professor of education, Ohio State University, in a personal comment makes the following indictment:

Probably no other phase of business education has received as much ballyhoo with as little concrete results as has the so-called trend toward co-operative business education. For the most part these co-operative programs that have been established on the secondary school level are little more than work-experience programs. They resemble true co-operative education on paper only but not in practice. With rare exceptions, these programs have been merely a convenient source of part time help for employers who neither understand nor are fundamentally interested in training youth.

While there may be some values in just plain work experience, these values can and are being over-estimated. The advantages must be measured in terms of the price the student pays for his work experience. That price is acceptance of a restricted education program in school, limited participation in extracurricular activities, and a decrease in leisure and recreational experience. It all sums up to nothing short of a much-over publicized program for the exploitation of student time.

It should be noted that, critical as this statement is of co-operative work, it limits its judgment to those programs that sound good on paper, but in practice are not what they propose to be. With this point of view, the most ardent advocate of co-operative training would be in agreement. The difference possibly is that Hanna emphasizes the diffi-

culties and limitations of the program, while those who advocate the plan stress its opportunities and possibilities. The answer may be somewhere in between.

SPECIFIC CO OPERATIVE PROGRAMS

New York City has the largest single co-operative program in the country. Well over 350 business firms and over 3 500 students participated in the program in the year 1960. All co-operative pupils are in full-time classes for the first two years of high school. In the last two years of high school, pupils of sixteen years of age and over attend classes and business on alternate weeks. Students work in pairs, one at school, and one on the job, thus the job is always covered. Initially the businessman trains two persons, and these two continue until graduated from school, at which time they are available for full-time employment.

All business contacts, job selection, placement, and issuance of employment certificates are the responsibility of the co-operative office at the board of education. Supervision of pupils on their jobs and correlation of work experience with classroom studies are achieved through the combined efforts of educators and employers.

The co-operative program does not have the function of an employment bureau. It is a system of education combining training and experience. Should a pupil leave school prior to graduation, he must resign from his job. Employers are asked to co-operate in this effort by not retaining such pupils.

Co-operative pupils work as pages, general clerks, file clerks, typists, bookkeepers, stenographers, receptionists, stock clerks, markers, sales people, and business machine operators (comptometer, key punch, book-keeping). There is careful selection of applicants to meet job specifications. The schools provide training in personality and business decorum, as well as in fundamental operations of job performance. Centralized placement simplifies the personnel problem involved in the selection and stabilization of junior workers. The co-operative plan gives the employer a continuing source of full-time employees who are, upon graduation from high school, already trained for individual firm needs and positions of responsibility.

Huge as the New York City program is, many communities have larger programs in proportion to their size. For example, Syracuse, New

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Huge as the New York City program is, many communities have larger programs in proportion to their size. For example, Syracuse, New

York, had over 150 students in co operative part time work in March, 1960. Moreover, most of these students were working in rather small organizations. Thus, while the learning opportunities were probably increased, the supervision problem was also increased. While the idea of co-operative work experience was first developed in the distributive occupations, in most communities the proportion of those who receive their work experience in the area of office occupations is considerably larger. For example, it is estimated that in New York City over 65 per cent of those in business work in office occupations rather than in distribution. This proportion seems to be rather usual.

The work experience procedure of New York City is not usual. The more typical procedure uses a daily alternation rather than a biweekly pattern. Pupils in the co-operative program spend the morning in school studying their regular subjects and in special classes which give them practical training for their work. The teachers assigned to this course have special qualifications to meet, in practical experience as well as in professional training. For the afternoon, the pupils are excused from school to work in part time jobs in local stores and offices. This work experience totals from 15 to 28 hours a week and must amount to at least 450 hours for each pupil during the school year if the pupil is to receive graduation credit for the work experience. The pupils are constantly supervised on the job by their teacher-co-ordinator as well as by their employers, and any special problems they have in their work are discussed in class.

Pupils in the co-operative office skills program receive special instruction in such work as stencil cutting, mimeograph operation, specific types of filing, and office machine operation, or in whatever skills may be needed in the offices where they work. These skills are in addition to the basic ones needed for stenographic, bookkeeping, and clerical positions.

It has been found that openings in the retailing field could not be filled by pupils available at one school alone. The co-operative retailing program consists of a preparatory program in the junior year, followed by a senior year of combined classwork and work experience.

Employers have shown their interest in the program, not only by employing pupils but also by providing funds and equipment with which to equip a classroom with counters, showcases, mirrors, and other furnishings.

CONCLUSION

Advocates of co operative work experience are exceedingly enthusiastic about the value of co-operative work experience, particularly that which is reimbursed by the Federal Government. In some cases they consider it the absolute essential and assume that no job instruction is valid unless the students have participated in co operative training. When carried to an extreme, this point of view is absurd. Many students go through a co operative work program and benefit little by it. Others, on the other hand, have never had co operative work experience and yet become exceedingly good workers. Obviously, the native intelligence of the individual is far more important than the kind of training experience he receives. All things being equal, however, the co operative work experience is unquestionably valuable to the new worker.

One of the major contributions of the work experience program is that it leads people to a job very easily. Naturally, if a co-operative work experience student has been proficient on the job, his employer is anxious to have his services after he graduates. Many trainers feel that this is one of the outstanding contributions of the work experience program.

Work activity always has been characteristic of a considerable proportion of our youth in the later years of school. Who has not had his experience in delivering orders for the corner grocer two or three hours in the afternoon, or selling papers, or doing a dozen and one different kinds of odd jobs to earn spending money while going to school? Such an experience, obtained by one's self, on one's private initiative, is invaluable.²

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 How does on the job learning differ from work experience in the form of co-operative training?
- 2 In what way is Federally supported co-operative training different from that which is not supported by Federal funds?
- 3 What is the function of co-operative education for business? What opportunities and difficulties does it present?

² For a discussion of the attitude of labor toward work experience in the school, see *Journal of Business Education* XX No 7 (March, 1945), p 27

4 What is the place of co-operative education in business education as a whole? In distributive education in particular?

5 What different plans have been devised for the operation of a co-operative program?

6 Why is self secured employment usually ignored in most school programs as a form of job experience?

7 What are the values of in school, out of-class work experience?

8 To what extent can worklike experience in the classroom be a substitute for actual job experience?

9 What is the businessman's attitude toward work experiences in times of depression? In times of prosperity?

10 Visit one or more schools which have co-operative work-experience programs. Talk with some teachers who have carried on work experience programs. On the basis of these experiences and your readings give an opinion as to the relative value of work experience in the total program of business education.

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See also the May issue of the *UBEA Forum* which has been devoted for the last several years to 'Co-operation with Business'

CHAPTER XIII

Attitudes of Business Toward Business Education

ONE WAY of determining how to improve education in general, and business education in particular, is to discover what people think about them. Among the groups whose opinions should be considered are businessmen, labor, educators, laymen in general, and the students themselves.

The attitudes of leaders in vocational and general education are given in other chapters. Laymen, as a group, usually have been inarticulate about job training although individual persons have probably indicated their attitudes as members of organized labor or as businessmen. Here we are concerned primarily with the views of businessmen.

ANALYSIS OF GENERAL ATTITUDES

The views of businessmen should be analyzed in the light of their motives and background and their reactions to the manner in which their opinions are asked. When employers are asked for suggestions about improving business education, they are inclined to question the training in highly specialized office skills, always with the exception of the typewriter. Businessmen prefer to give the specialized, and usually routine and easily learned, on-the-job training themselves. Of course, they would prefer the teachers to develop the basic traits of honesty, reliability, loyalty, and the like, though for the most part

businessmen are not quite clear about what they mean by these traits. Naturally, also, businessmen would prefer to have students who come to them for jobs to be competent in the basic processes, such as reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Most important, the businessman would like to have beginning workers have an overdose of what is commonly called common sense. This quality is especially desired when it can be applied in a business environment. The businessman certainly wants honesty on the part of his potential workers, but he wants honesty tempered with discretion. If a worker were to tell his boss's competitor how much profit the firm was making on a particular deal, or worse, if the profit is high, to inform the customer, the businessman would in all likelihood label the worker as unreliable. The standards of the school and of the office are basically quite similar, but their similarity is often not obvious to the new worker.

Much of what is called common sense is concerned with ability to develop good human relations on the job. Brighter students particularly have been encouraged to ask questions in school. They have been approved especially if they saw flaws in the accepted procedures for carrying on the world's work. Such questioning is not favored in routine workers, especially if they have just come on the job. There is a time and place for suggesting means of improving office procedures, but the senior office worker does not enjoy being told that a filing procedure to which he has long been accustomed is inefficient. If the new worker is wrong or partly wrong, the supervisor questions the young worker's common sense. If the new worker is right or mostly right, the supervisor may especially object because he himself may know that his practice is not the best, but he may not want to change. In theory we all know how to do better than we actually do in practice.

In both school and office, there are times when the student or worker temporarily has little or nothing to do. In school the student is accustomed to taking out a book and at least putting forth the appearance of studying. This practice is especially true with a firm teacher. Many child-centered teachers are quite satisfied if the student does not whisper too loudly or read a tabloid publicly.

When the student becomes a worker, he feels that such putting on an act is beneath his dignity. He is wrong. It is just as important to maintain decorum in the office, if not more so, as it is in the schoolroom. It is true that the nature of the decorum is different. Just because it may be

a little less formal, the new worker may go too far. The businessman or his office manager will quickly assume that the student was not taught "good manners" in school, though he himself may be in part the cause of the poor conduct. When a businessman comes in late, takes two hours for lunch (for justified reasons, of course), and quits early, it is often difficult for the young worker to realize that he himself may not take this privilege without dire disapproval from the master. The businessman would have the schoolmaster immunize the student from practicing what he sees for all time. Educators have insisted that they are molding the coming generation, and the businessman takes him at his word.

It must be obvious to everyone that the supply of workers has a great influence upon worker efficiency and consequently upon the attitude of business. As Dawson F. Dean, Director of Personnel for the American Home Products Corporation, points out:

The great demand and acute shortage [1953] of beginning typists, stenographers, business-machine operators, and skilled office technicians compels most personnel officers to settle for less than the minimum and to do a lot of on-the-job training. Much of this training is necessarily in the fundamentals of spelling, punctuation, language usage, letter style and format, etc.

Since these beginning office jobs are now easily obtained by even the marginal candidate, the high school business student is apparently less anxious to develop his skills to the maximum. To encourage business teachers, however, to maintain high standards as far as possible, it is pointed out that in due time the pressing need for beginners will be met, and those attempting to enter business employment with serious deficiencies will fail to make desired and expected job and salary progress. The less fit will be forced out of employment.

Now as always the thoroughly schooled office worker commands a higher beginning salary and a more selected position. He will fit in more quickly and easily and will realize more rapid promotional opportunities. Moreover, he will be less likely to become involved in friction growing out of lack of knowledge and skill. Deficiencies in new employees create irritations for supervisors who have not previously found it necessary to train and develop their workers.

THE DEMAND FOR SUPERIOR ABILITY IN THE FUNDAMENTALS

Businessmen generally desire employees who are exceptionally skilled in the fundamental subjects—arithmetic, English, handwriting, and the

like. A recent nationwide study of what businessmen think and want was made by Elmore P. Day, Jr., under a Ford grant and with the cooperation of the National Office Management Association. His conclusion in regard to the fundamental processes was that:¹

Businessmen agreed that the schools, for the most part, are not adequately preparing students in English grammar, spelling, arithmetic, or penmanship and yet each of these skills is vital to efficient office operation. Their criticisms are supported by the results of their testing programs and the job performance of beginning workers. When they spoke of these deficiencies, they spoke of inability to handle fractions, percentages, and decimals; they spoke of commonly used words misspelled; they spoke of illegible handwriting, especially figures, and they spoke of the inability to construct an intelligent sentence with capitalization and punctuation, and of the inability to speak the English language

I was subjected during my study to a barrage of condemnation of graduates

Typical remarks are these

"Your business students are clucks when they begin the course and clucks when they finish."

"Students have lost the personal satisfaction which comes from a job well done."

"Students have the impression that the world owes them a living."

"If a person lives long enough, he'll graduate from high school today."

"You are graduating each year great classes of experts in ignorance."

These businessmen, for the most part personnel men, generally recognized that the failure was perennial and certainly not all the fault of the school. Yet they tended to feel that the school could and should have done more to correct the students' faults. The school promises much and gives far less, summarizes their point of view.

More critical is the reaction of the Commerce and Industry Association of New York, based on a survey of high school training for business. Among 255 firms that responded to the question, "Please indicate as objectively as possible how you would rate recent high school graduates in your reply with respect to competency in the basic skills" Here are their answers:

¹ "The National Pulse of Office Employment," *The Balance Sheet*, XXXVII (December, 1950), p. 160

TABLE 12 *Proficiency in Basic Skills*

	Poor (%)	Fair (%)	Good (%)	Excellent (%)	Total Number
Reading	25	50.4	42.2	3.8	240
Writing	21.1	52.4	24	1.2	247
Spelling	37.6	48.5	12	0.0	250
Grammar	26.0	35.2	17.2	1.6	230
Arithmetic	17.3		31.1	1.2	248
Average for all skills (%)	21.0	51.7	25.6	1.7	

The school officials rightly criticized this analysis. First, it presents off the-cuff opinion, second it does not detail what is meant by poor spelling ability for example, third no attempt was made to find out how well or poorly students had done in school or what their basic intelligence was, and finally, the condemnation tended to stress the weaknesses of the business education program, though it could have little responsibility for possible failures.

From a slightly different point of view, 234 of these respondents made suggestions for improvement in the work of the high schools. Forty-six asked for improvement in grammar instruction, 42 in spelling, 34 in arithmetic, 30 in reading, and 28 in writing. While in the foregoing table, 37 per cent indicated spelling experiences as serious, only 19 per cent felt the school could do much about it.

A statement by Alfred E. Waller, Employment Manager of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York City, adequately summarizes the businessman's attitude toward training for the fundamental skills:

The general deficiency in the basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic has become increasingly clear to business during the last decade but especially during the last five years. One company after another has found it necessary to install testing programs for the purpose of determining the basic skills possessed by applicants for employment including those who graduated from high school. They have in addition found it necessary to include in their training more and more instruction in the areas which are properly a responsibility of the schools.

* "The Three R's Are Essential" *Journal of Business Education* XXVIII (December 1952) pp 98-100

Businessmen are almost as concerned about, and in some ways even more critical of, the failure to develop personality in the schools as they are about weaknesses in the fundamental skills. As one personnel director puts it:

When I first entered personnel work, I thought quite naively that scholastic rankings would be a satisfactory guide to the successful employment of beginners. Scholarship is a factor, but a little experience soon showed me that personality is an even greater factor and rightly so, because personal relationships must mesh satisfactorily if a business group is to co-ordinate and pull together in a common effort. Longer business experience, however, has taught me that important as personality is, it is not something which can readily be changed in an individual except under the most expert consultation. Moreover, personality is the measure of an individual as a whole, and the failures of individuals in life, except among criminals and other extreme groups, are not the result of complete failure in personality makeup, on the contrary, most failures are predicated on one or two weaknesses or lacks.

Next came the realization that attitudes are the key to the individual's makeup and to his capacity to adjust himself to situations. This is not a very profound observation in itself, but to those who have not thought of it this way before, it is a very happy discovery because it points the way to the weaknesses where teachers and personnel managers can work to help these misfits. To adjust a faulty personality is a major undertaking for a psychiatrist, but to overcome a faulty attitude, or a combination of faulty attitudes, requires only good teaching and leadership.³

Day's analysis gave the judgment that

... managers are looking for a conscientious worker who is willing to give a day's work for a day's pay, who is courteous and polite, who realizes that education is a never-ending process and therefore is willing to continue to learn to take direction, who is honest and humble, who has a pleasing personality and gets along well with other persons, who creates a good first impression, who can complete an application form legibly, who has participated in some extracurricular activity as evidence of leadership ability and social sensitivity, and who shows some degree of intelligence. After all this, he then looks for a typist or a clerk, or a bookkeeper, or a stenographer.⁴

The Commerce and Industry inquiry also showed some weaknesses in the attitudes of beginning workers in the office. Here are the reactions:

³ Gwynn Prosser, "Launching the Beginner in Office Occupations" *Eleventh Yearbook*, Commercial Education Association of New York and Vicinity, 1940-1941, p. 40.

⁴ *Op. cit.* p. 159.

TABLE 13 *Personal Attributes*

	<i>Poor</i> (%)	<i>Fair</i> (%)	<i>Good</i> (%)	<i>Excellent</i> (%)	<i>Total</i>
Personal integrity	1 4	21 0	61 7	15 7	243
Willingness to assume responsibility	18 0	54 8	23 8	3 4	239
Initiative	15 6	58 8	23 5	2 1	238
Ability to get along with others	0 4	15 3	72 3	12 0	24 ^a
A desire to develop and to progress	11 2	40 9	40 9	7 0	242
Pride in doing a good job	15 7	50 8	29 2	4 2	242
Openmindedness fairness	2 9	31 3	59 3	6 5	242
Courtesy	4 0	33 1	52 1	7 8	245
Neatness of person and dress	3 7	24 7	58 8	12 8	243
Average for all attributes (%)	8 1	36 7	47 3	7 9	

Considering the fact that the older generation always is critical of the coming generation and especially of the children of others, the above compilation shows up rather well. Such critical attitudes are more likely to be employed in a metropolitan community than in a small community.

Nevertheless, these businessmen felt obliged to suggest that the school give more attention to training in the following personal traits: sense of responsibility, accuracy in work, attendance, punctuality, job appreciation, neatness of person and dress, courtesy.

It must be evident that the business teacher must reconcile himself to continued criticism by businessmen and others about the deficiencies of high school graduates in the area of personal qualities. In 1910 the opinion was given that "businessmen want, first of all, those who are willing to obey orders, second, those who can understand and interpret instructions. Businessmen are not finding fault because our pupils can not write shorthand fast enough, or because they do not know how to post a ledger."

Businessmen of today would express the same point of view, and in slightly different fashion would have agreed in the days of Aristotle.

^a Horace G. Healy, "What Business Men Demand of Graduates of Commercial Schools," Proceedings and Address of the 48th Annual Meeting, National Education Association, Boston, 1910, p. 855.

This conclusion should not hinder business teachers from doing their best to improve the personal qualifications of their students. Most teachers do try and succeed far beyond their immediate realization. Students often show little improvement while in school, and certainly their improvement cannot be measured objectively. Nevertheless, the testimony that most teachers receive from their students of a previous generation about how much influence they have had upon their lives should not be discounted as merely seeing the past through rose-colored glasses.

A comment by Horatio Thompson, proprietor of Horatio's Esso Stations of Baton Rouge, made to a group of business teachers in Monroe, Louisiana in November 1953, makes a fine summary for this section.

The businessman expects at least a fair knowledge of technical skills plus a willingness and eagerness to learn—not that I KNOW IT ALL ATTITUDE. We further expect a high degree of accuracy in whatever work is done. We for example average 10 to 15 customer complaints monthly concerning errors on their accounts—charges made to wrong accounts and payments credited to wrong customer's account and in some instances not credited at all. This actually happened in our business with an employee during 3 years of routine duties. We have had letters typed from printed forms with each letter having from 3 to 4 errors.

We believe it is reasonable to expect a person to possess integrity and loyalty. He should be loyal to the business—after all it is his job and means of livelihood. We expect integrity in all dealings. We know what is ethical and act accordingly regardless.

I wish to offer the following three friendly suggestions to teachers of prospective job applicants for our business:

1. Stress accuracy more than speed for speed will naturally come with continuous practice.
2. Teach student what is ethical and what is unethical to do during his tenure of employment.
3. Don't put Stamp of Approval on student as ready for graduation until he at least knows his subject matter to a fair degree.*

SPECIALIZED TRAINING IN BUSINESS

Although businessmen are less concerned with specific business skills than with personality and proficiency in the fundamentals, they still

* For a similar discussion see Harold Richardson "Education for Business Panel Discussion" *NOMA Forum* XXII (December 1947) pp. 30-31.

expect the schools to train people in job skills. Possibly the reason for such lesser emphasis is the proficiency of the schools in the development of job skills as compared to the relative success of the schools in developing personality and improving the fundamental skills.

Businessmen are less concerned with specific skills in quantity of words a minute than they are with the use of these skills on the job. For example

Another important skill for the beginning secretarial worker is that of typing from manuscript and from rough drafts that carry interlined corrections and reference marks for the insertion of paragraphs written as afterthoughts on separate pieces of paper.

Nearly all beginners lack skill in the assembling of carbon paper with original and copy sheets and inserting them neatly into the typewriter. I am told that the main reason why girls aren't taught this trick of the trade is that we taxpayers are too "tight" to provide the funds for carbon and copy sheets.

Nearly all secretaries are called on at times to sort papers into alphabetic sequence or to file them behind alphabetic guides. It is surprisingly difficult for most of them to do this accurately. Can we reasonably expect the schools to impart a fair degree of skill in alphabetic sorting and filing?

On the basis of the survey made by Day, quoted above, he finds that

Most offices have become highly mechanized. This poses a special problem for the schools because such equipment is expensive, new models constantly appear on the market, and extensive practice is required for proficiency. In the field of bookkeeping, the work has become almost 100 per cent mechanized in the larger offices, and office managers felt that students who intend to work as bookkeepers should have a one-year course in the fundamentals in high school and then be trained on the job with the machines they are going to use. They also felt that students should be proficient operators of the adding machine which is basic to many beginning jobs—preferably the ten key machine. With increased mechanization of offices there has developed the problem of increased monotony on the job and greater turnover. This problem is already being attacked in some offices with plans for job rotation and job enlargement.

Some sort of office machine training is important in every high school

¹ Roy Mason "What the Office Manager Expects of the Beginning Secretarial Worker" *Bacon's on Business Education* No. 27 (June 1950), pp. 5-6.

business course today, and I would suggest that the schools make a thorough study of the equipment in use in the offices where their graduates intend to work before deciding which machines to install ⁸

The business teacher is placed in a dilemma by the changing trend in business activity. In the standard business trades like stenographer, typist, standard posting-machine operator, ten-key adding machine operator, etc., he knows (1) that there is a place in business for such workers, (2) that it takes time to train for such jobs, and (3) that it is economically sound and efficient for the school to give such training. However, business is developing highly specialized machines that require little training, are very expensive, and are constantly changing. The business teacher feels that he is not justified in buying an expensive machine for which training can easily be given on the job and which soon will become obsolete, and the business man agrees with the teacher. Nevertheless, the office manager expects to be able to give a routine explanation of how a machine works to a new employee and then is disappointed when the employee makes mistakes. Someone must be the scapegoat, and it had better not be the new worker for he will quit and get another job around the corner. The easy path is to blame the school.

Teachers are not entirely without blame. In a recent study, business men were asked whether they would prefer a beginning stenographer with less ability to take rapid dictation and more ability to transcribe into mailable letters, or ability to take rapid dictation at the expense of transcription ability. It was found that 89 out of 95 gave preference to ability to transcribe into mailable letters. Obviously teachers, students, and businessmen alike would prefer both abilities. Yet most teachers are so concerned with the development of speed of dictation that they tend to neglect mailability. The tendency is particularly true in schools where only one year of shorthand is offered, and as we know, these schools are becoming more and more typical.

Most businessmen fully understand the dilemma of the business teacher and would be among the first to question training high school students in the multitude of office machines, with almost infinite variations, that are now on the market. Most office managers realize that, just because of automation, it is less feasible rather than more feasible to give highly specialized training in schools. In a recent study of 100 firms,

⁸ *Op cit* p. 159

only 33 office and personnel managers suggested that key-punch operation be taught in the schools, only 9 suggested program making for electronic data processing, and 11 recommended wiring for electronic data processing. Three of the respondents who recommended these learnings were interviewed personally. In all three cases, the respondent firms did not use electronic data processing or any other form of automation, they did not realize the cost of the equipment, and they had no awareness of the brevity of time required for key punch operation or the length of time and basic ability needed for program making and wiring.

However, if anything is made clear on the basis of interviews with competent businessmen and by study of business operations, it is that high competency in typing is as close to an absolute "must" as any skill that could be conceived. Typing has become even more important in the office than it formerly was. Moreover, most of the applied machines of advanced form utilize the skill of typing and the skill in using the ten key adding machine.

A business teacher may well question highly specialized training in the numerous machines that are being developed for use in the office. He may decide to hold off until the office machine field attains some degree of stability, however, the dire need for competency in typing and to a lesser extent in the ten key adding machine is clear. We have come very close to the point where it can be said that every student who graduates from high school should have minimum competency in typing.

Businessmen tend to deride the basic skills in favor of personal qualities and common sense. Often on the job, however, what appears as laziness or lack of common sense is actually incompetency in skill, though not recognized as such by the office manager. In the job situation, skill, personal qualities, and business understanding are not isolated qualities. They are integrated into a total job competency. Failure in any of the elements may cause job failure, and often the superior is not able to isolate the specific cause.

Finally, business teachers cannot ignore skill training, because businessmen themselves in selecting workers use skill ability as a means for selecting new workers. While personnel managers continue to screen candidates on the basis of their ability to type, take dictation, or process cards at the rate of so many units a minute, it behooves business teachers to train their students in the elements personnel men test rather than what the top-level boss asks for from a speaker's platform.

UNDERSTANDING OF THE FUNDAMENTALS OF BUSINESS

During the 1950's and especially during the Red scares, businessmen were often concerned with the possibility that students were learning, if not being taught, economic and social ideas foreign to the American system of economy. They were encouraged in this attitude by surveys showing what students thought were the activities of various organizations and especially of their own groups. For example, a study of 1,443 high school students made for the General Electric Corporation by the Opinion Research Corporation was given wide publicity by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States in 1955. There was much concern. As one example, 65 per cent of the students thought the average profit on sales was more than 10 per cent. While the researchers felt this was a horrendous case, this opinion is to be questioned. The question itself did not indicate whether gross or net profit was considered. Many students realize that gross profit must be 20 per cent on many items, and that 100 per cent is quite justified on others. This does not make them anticapitalistic—rather it shows them to be realistic. Very conservative businessmen often are horrified at the economic attitudes of students and teachers. Yet a study now in process of completion (1960) gives substantial evidence that there is high overlapping in the attitudes of students, teachers, and businessmen. The tendency for younger people to be less conservative than their elders has been perennial. In fact, most of us would think it unfortunate if the coming generation became sedate too early in life. Many older people in fact feel that the present generation is settling down too early in life.

Businessmen need to make far more careful studies before they are in a position to state that high school students and business students in particular are radical or un-American in their economic concepts. Nevertheless, if businessmen feel the need for wiser training in the understanding of business life, they should encourage its development in high school. For example almost two decades ago it was pointed out that,

The businessman is eager to employ those who have a sound concept of business principles. I do not refer to this as economics, because the businessman feels that so much material that has no relation to sound principle is called economics.

. This concept of business and business principles is fundamentally

that business consists of the use of labor and materials to yield a product or render a service for which others will pay enough to cover the cost of production, overhead, distribution, and all the other costs and charges of the business, together with a profit commensurate with the capital employed, the risks involved, and the experience, ability, and energy employed

. . . The high school graduate who has this knowledge of business principles, who believes in this kind of business, and who intends to help his employer carry out these principles successfully is the high school graduate that the businessman most wants "

Thus far support for such a course has not been given by businessmen as individuals or in groups. Possibly business teachers have not been sufficiently vigorous in espousing such learning.

GENERAL ATTITUDES OF BUSINESSMEN TOWARD BUSINESS EDUCATION

By no means all businessmen are as critical of education in general and of business education in particular as some of those who have been quoted. For example, Walter Emmerling, International President of NOMA in 1959-60 pointed out that

Teachers must grow mighty tired of hearing constantly such comments as, "Now, when I went to school they really taught us how to spell. And as for math, we learned how to add, subtract, multiply, and divide properly and with no trouble at all. Why can't schools teach youngsters these things today?"

The fact that the businessman asking these questions never could spell correctly and picked up his knowledge of mathematics only in later years is wholly irrelevant. The point is he thinks he was taught better than are many of today's youngsters, and the fact that he believes it "makes it so." That there are many like him who believe that the quality of today's teaching is less than what it was forty, fifty, or more years ago places a very unfair stigma on our educational system and on the well-qualified and highly capable men and women doing outstanding jobs in the difficult, highly complex, and frequently disillusioning career work of teaching modern youth.

His closing comment is especially worthy of note.

That businessmen need business educators requires no elaboration. That business educators need and deserve the personal interest of businessmen is a very definite reality. In this regard, business must insist on the best possible teachers and support its demands with such inducements as

adequate salaries, good working conditions, job security, and proper social status in the community. But the situation requires far more. Businessmen in every community must become better informed about the needs and problems of the schools from such reliable sources as the business educators themselves.

William H. Hansen⁹ has pointed out

- 1 That improved courses should be established in the following
 - a Business fundamentals
 - b Commercial arithmetic
 - c Office practice (including filing and the use of transcribing machines)
 - d Business English
 - e Office machines with instructions in calculating bookkeeping and billing—usual actual modern business forms and procedures
- 2 Budgets should be created to provide adequate office equipment
- 3 A director of business education should be appointed in order to bring about closer co operation between the schools and business offices
- 4 If at all possible, a vocational guidance department should be established in all high schools
- 5 A short one semester course in elementary business law should be offered during the senior year

BASES FOR BUSINESSMEN'S OPINIONS

Views such as those just quoted may sometimes confuse the purposes of business education with those of general education. Many employers assume that, if the school cannot teach honesty, loyalty, and accuracy, it is not serving its purpose.

Employers often forget that the schools have changed radically in the last generation. Many critics of modern schools have not been inside a classroom for twenty or thirty years, hence, their views may be irrelevant to the present situation.

Employers often expect young employees to possess qualities that only years of special experience can develop. For example, it is unreasonable to expect recently graduated high school students to have exceptional skill in the use of the arithmetical processes that are required by certain highly specialized concerns.

When personnel managers and other employing officers, who are

⁹ "The National Office Management Views Business Education" *First American Business Education Yearbook* 1944 p 17

interested in offering advice to teachers, are asked for opinions, they tend to answer in terms of the situation confronting them. If the recently appointed stenographer has a faulty command of English, the personnel manager may declare that the school fails to teach English, if he has just come across an example of disloyalty, he may assume that the school is weak in character training.

One of the major reasons why businessmen have made unreasonable demands on the schools is that the schools have promised too much. The school cannot remake children. Students, during their school years, are in schools for only a small part of the full day for just about one-half the year. Obviously, the home, street life, and possibly other phases of childhood experience have a far greater opportunity to influence young people than does the school. When schoolmen, in order to promote the school's place in the social system, preach that the school can accomplish miracles they really do the schools more harm than good.

Businessmen, naturally, are quick to accept the promises of school administrators. They, therefore, are disappointed when schools cannot remake personalities, or produce students who have a perfect command of the fundamental skills, or make students willing to work for low salaries on the vague hope of future promotions. Schoolmen should therefore tone down their preachments about what the school can do and confine their promises to the realm of realistic possibilities.

A second reason why businessmen make critical comments about the schools is that teachers ask them for criticisms. Businessmen, for example, are asked to address teachers' conventions on 'What Is Wrong with Business Education?' Naturally, the businessman accepts the challenge and presents his reaction. Teachers do not specify to the businessman what they want. They ask him merely to give his opinion in general, and that is just what teachers get—a generalized opinion. Actually, all the evidence of research (and it must be admitted the results are meager) shows that education of children today is, if anything, superior to that of children who graduated from schools 100 years ago. Therefore, when businessmen condemn the schools and say that students are not being as well taught as they were when they themselves went to school, they are simply suffering from the usual myopia of the older person who looks back upon his own school training with nostalgia.

VALUE OF OPINIONS OF BUSINESSMEN

Businessmen have often a somewhat patronizing and condescending attitude towards the schools. Possibly to some extent they are justified. The schools customarily deal with situations that involve far more than the profit-making attitude, and therefore they do not emphasize the same thing which the businessman thinks of prime importance—the ability to make a certain amount of profit from the service rendered by a worker. On the other hand, a great deal of the condescension of the businessman is caused by the teachers themselves who constantly give the businessman more respect and reverence than he deserves ordinarily. As Margaret B. Pickel¹⁰ says.

Surely it must shake the layman's confidence in education to be constantly asked for advice about it. Imagine the waiting room of a doctor on the lookout for surgical suggestions. Yet teachers are increasingly taking counsel with outsiders. They ask a panel of businessmen what they think is the most important part of a high school education, and the businessmen decide that it is good personal attitudes and work habits "enthusiasm for work, neatness, good manners, tact and punctuality," listing these traits "ahead of the basic skills such as reading, writing and arithmetic."

Have modern teachers forgotten or did they never know that the traits admired by these businessmen are by products of a disciplined education—except for tact, which the gods give or withhold? Do modern teachers really believe that getting ahead is the first end of education? I cannot think so badly of them. It seems more likely that some teachers and professors are confused about their function because they try to please every section of the community, instead of setting up their own standards as experts and making the community meet them.

Of course education can never be as scientific as science, and of course the layman's point of view may, on occasion, help the educator to broaden his own vista. But any self-respecting educator will take the layman's view for just what it is—and not that of an expert.

A major reason why the opinions of business people cannot always be taken too seriously is that they are rendered for dramatic effect, rather than on the basis of sound evidence. For example, Bernice Fitz-Gibbons,

¹⁰ "Education Is the Teacher's Job" *New York Times Magazine* section p. 22 June 3, 1951.

advertising director of Gimbels in New York, created quite a stir when she said that "top industrial giants are not looking for a secretary with shorthand speed, dependability, industry—don't be silly. First and foremost they are looking for a *LOOKER*." She evidently feels that executives don't know how to write and that the secretary will have to compose the letters herself anyhow. Unfortunately, there is just enough truth to the comment to misguide younger women, already bedazzled by the movie concept of business, with a very bad concept of what makes people successful in office work. Miss Fitz-Gibbons partly redeems herself by stating that "every young person should be a touch typist with a minimum speed of 50 words a minute. Typing speed, like a minimum I Q, should be a college entrance requirement."

There is 'gold' in the great outpourings of drivel, opinion, and fact that come from business people, but it requires very careful screening to secure a small amount of sound thinking from the large amount of waste.

WHAT HELP CAN BUSINESSMEN GIVE THE SCHOOL?

The opinions of businessmen often tend to be of little value because they are too general. Employers, however, can give the schools useful advice about the details of business procedures, such as record keeping, correspondence, and business forms. Whenever businessmen are asked specific questions, they are usually glad to answer them. If they are consulted on general points, they naturally will express themselves in generalities. It is not generalities that the school needs from businessmen but the specifics of business occupations. When businessmen tell business teachers that their beginning workers cannot spell, that information is useless. Students can spell many words correctly, and businessmen themselves are unable to spell many words. If businessmen were encouraged to provide the instructors with copies of the letters in which specific errors are made, or lists of these errors, that would be helpful. If they would tell precisely what kinds of arithmetic errors are made and under what circumstances these errors are made, that would be a useful contribution for teaching. Learning as teachers have known for a long time, is not successful when taught in terms of general situations. It must be very specific.

Frequently, the immediate supervisors of young employees are able to give teachers more help than the 'big boss' who, because it is his duty to co ordinate the work of all departments, is often uninformed regarding the departmental details. The head of the stenographic department, the clerk in charge of ledgers, the training supervisor in a department store, and similar executives are in a far better position to determine the particular needs of beginning workers. Teachers should make their contacts through the top executives, but, generally, the meaningful help can be given by the first- and second line supervisors.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1 Why is the attitude of businessmen of special importance to business education?

2 What reservations must be made about the attitudes of businessmen toward business education? Why?

3 What is the attitude of businessmen toward the school's training in the fundamental processes? Is this attitude justified? Why?

4 Why does the businessman consider personality a key to business success? What does he think is the function of the school in developing personality?

5 Does the businessman want specialized training in business? Under what conditions and for what purposes does he approve or disapprove?

6 Do most businessmen ask for training in small business operation? Why?

7 Can one speak of the attitude of businessmen? Does business speak with one voice? How diverse are the opinions of businessmen? What are the implications of your opinion to business education?

8 What contradictions may be found in the opinions of businessmen and labor toward business education? Why do they arise?

9 What methods must be used in getting specific aid for businessmen?

10 What are the major criticisms of businessmen as far as business education is concerned?

11 Interview several businessmen in your community and check their opinions with those contained in this chapter.

12 Follow the same procedure with the leaders of labor in your area. Is there any difference in attitudes of C.I.O. and A. F. of L. leaders, of organized and unorganized labor?

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CHAPTER XIV

Attitudes of Labor Toward Business Education

AMERICAN LABOR, and especially organized labor, is a staunch advocate of education in general, and of vocational education in particular. At the same time, it is critical of many phases of technical training now undertaken in secondary schools.

Although members of labor unions are interested in the welfare of the community and in the improvement of economic and social conditions, they are concerned primarily with the protection of their own jobs, higher wages, better working conditions, and fewer working hours. When there is a conflict in these aims, labor is naturally in a dilemma. Fortunately, this conflict is not serious. Only as wages, working hours, and working conditions improve can the social structure in general be perfected.

Labor has a strong and vested interest in the improved economic and social conditions of all the American people. This is entirely natural, for American workers and labor leaders realize that only when all gain adequate standards of living can each individual be assured of his individual standard.

There is an especially strong awareness on the part of organized labor of the meager support being given education. The AFL-CIO has provided many statements in favor of education. Here is one that is typical:

One of the paradoxes of American society today is that in the midst

of great wealth, high production, and military power, we have become a nation of misers when it comes to providing basic social necessities. We have somehow let ourselves be persuaded that more housing, more schools, more social benefits, roads, and hospitals, would impoverish our nation. We seem to have lost our understanding that great wealth and high industrial production are not an end in themselves but exist to benefit the people all the people.¹

Labor is also critical of certain aspects of education as it is carried on today. Note these comments:

We must do more than merely urge "more funds for education." We must analyze and evaluate the programs through which these funds are administered.

Is the course of study, which is itself is often rigidly dictated by the colleges and universities of our country, planned to equip a youth to meet his responsibilities in the second half of the 20th century? Is his sense of moral and social discipline adequately emphasized in his school training today? Is he merely "putting in time" in a school, to meet the legal requirements of a compulsory school attendance law or is he actually being educated, and trained to be a good citizen?

When we realize that in some states today, authorities are actually giving two kinds of diplomas—one for attendance and one for achievement—we have a right and a duty to ask what the value might be of an "attendance diploma."

Labor must seek and continually work to have its qualified men and women serve on boards of education and in this manner help shape educational policy.

A survey of the composition of boards of education made two decades ago showed that less than 2% of the membership of state, city, or county boards of education were "labor." The spot-check study made by the American Federation of Labor's Standing Committee on Education last year showed the continuing lack of labor representation on boards of education. These facts show that it is urgent that local and state labor leaders should plan systematically to assure representation of labor on the local and state boards of education to assure labor's helping shape administrative educational policy.²

¹ Harry Van Arsdale, *Our Finest Weapon—Education*, Bulletin of the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations, 1959, pp. 1-2.

² *Labor and Education in 1951*, American Federation of Labor, Washington D. C., 1952, p. 5-6.

ATTITUDE OF LABOR TOWARD VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

These quotations show that labor, while strongly in favor of general education, is critical of much that is done in the name of general education. Organized labor is still willing to support worth while vocational education training, but is probably even more critical of certain aspects of job training. As early as 1908 the American Federation of Labor set up a special committee to study industrial education in the United States and abroad. On the basis of this report the A F of L collaborated with such organizations as the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education for the enactment of Federal aid to vocational education. This work culminated in the passage of the Smith Hughes Act by Congress in 1917.

In general, organized labor is in favor of job training which is controlled rather than rampant, thorough rather than superficial, and such that it will raise the standard of living rather than endanger it. As a report of the American Federation of Labor of 1908 declared

There are two groups with opposite methods, and seeking antagonistic ends, now advocating industrial education in the United States. One of these groups would educate the student or apprentice to non union sympathies and prepare him as a skilled worker for scab labor and strike breaking purposes. This group also favors the training of the student or apprentice for skill in only one industrial process, thus making the graduate a skilled worker in only a very limited sense and rendering him entirely helpless if lack of employment comes in his single subdivision of the craft.

The other group is composed of great educators, enlightened representatives of organized labor and persons engaged in genuine social service who advocate industrial education as a common right to be open to all children on equal terms to be provided by general taxation and kept under the control of the whole people with a method or system of education that will make the apprentice or graduate a skilled craftsman in all branches of his trade. ³

From labor's point of view, vocational education should teach the student how to use tools, how to deal with business conditions, and how

³ American Federation of Labor, *Report of Proceedings of the Twenty-eighth Annual Convention* Washington D C. The National Tribune Company, 1908. Quoted in John D. Russell and others, *Vocational Education* p. 234.

of great wealth, high production, and military power, we have become a nation of misers when it comes to providing basic social necessities. We have somehow let ourselves be persuaded that more housing, more schools, more social benefits, roads, and hospitals, would impoverish our nation. We seem to have lost our understanding that great wealth and high industrial production are not an end in themselves but exist to benefit the people, all the people.¹

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³ American Federation of Labor *Report of Proceedings of the Twenty-eighth Annual Convention* Washington D C The National Tribune Company, 1908. Quoted in John D Russell and others *Vocational Education* p 234.

to make the most of economic opportunities. Nevertheless, there is now no doubt in the minds of labor leaders that good general education is basic for all and comes first. Only after a good general education is job training justified and then only on the basis of proved need.

Unions do not always encourage highly specialized job training. Unscrupulous employers sometimes have urged the schools to graduate a large number of workers in a given occupation in order to prevent the union from controlling the labor market. Union workers have pointed out that in many cases such graduates are inefficient, rarely, in fact, are they masters of their craft.

When industrial schools are used to undermine the position of organized labor, and under the guise of apprenticeship education, make it possible for a factory owner to obtain cheap help, the unions become aroused. Similarly, when specialized industrial education is organized in order to take industries from areas in which labor is unionized into areas where the open shop prevails, labor is strongly displeased.

LABOR AND THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT

As the report of the AFL-CIO Executive Council to the Third Constitutional Convention pointed out:

Congress last year passed Public Law 85-864, The National Defense Education Act of 1958. The theory back of this law was that the national security requires the fullest development of the mental resources and technical skills of our citizens and making available more adequate educational opportunities. The law provides substantial assistance to individuals and to the states.

Programs of a similar nature in the past, have been developed with the advice and co-operation of labor and management committees representing the industries affected by such programs.

Despite the repeated references in the law itself to the training of persons for employment as skilled workers including related training for apprentices in addition to its references to training of "technicians" the Office of Education seized upon the one point in the entire title Section 303 (a) (3), where reference is made to the training of "highly skilled technicians," as an excuse to limit the use of funds exclusively for the training of "technicians," a term it has thus far not defined.

The law, as interpreted and applied by the Office of Education, endangers the continuation of regular apprentice training programs and will make it

more difficult for journeymen to obtain the additional training to meet the growing technical demands of their work. It will result in dumping onto the labor market many thousands of partially trained youths who will be used by shortsighted management to downgrade the established crafts.

The trade union movement must exert every effort to amend the National Defense Education Act to prevent the Office of Education from continuing to pursue its present course. We must make certain that the funds authorized will be used for area vocational programs, including related training for apprentices and journeymen retraining programs, and will provide the needed extension of the excellent programs of vocational education established by the states with federal assistance.⁴

ATTITUDE OF LABOR TOWARD BUSINESS EDUCATION

There are now quite a few unions of stenographers, bookkeepers, and office workers. While the number of office workers who are union workers is still rather small, their influence is probably far greater than their number indicates. Merchandising workers have been quite successful in organizing in recent years.

It is difficult to organize office and store workers for a number of reasons. The fact that large numbers of women are employed in routine business occupations often militates against unionism, for many women do not expect to stay in gainful employment and, therefore, are reluctant to fight for the goals that organized labor sets for itself. Furthermore, in typical offices, employers and employees are in daily contact with each other and can settle disputes or discuss working conditions face to face rather than by means of group representation. This factor also tends to retard unionism in office occupations. Nevertheless, there is a growing sense of unity among office and store workers and a consequent growth in interest in unionization.

Organized labor is, at best, lukewarm in its attitude toward most present forms of business education. It views with concern the mass of ill-trained students who are poured out annually into vocational life from secondary public schools, private business schools, and even colleges.

⁴ Policies Resolutions on Education, Adopted September 1959, by the Third Constitutional Convention. American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations, January 1960 pp. 33-35.

There is particular concern about the numbers of stenographers produced by the schools every year. Labor is apparently more aware, than are business teachers themselves, of the fact that stenography rarely offers an adequate lifelong occupation. Stenographers are typically younger women who work at salaries often much lower than those received by waitresses, in spite of the larger amount of training required. There are many reasons for this, but no doubt the relative oversupply of beginners produced by the schools every year is a major factor. Labor is concerned with the dignity of workers and, therefore, is gravely concerned with poor workmanship. Labor would no doubt be glad to participate in the elevation of training in stenographic work and in the adjustment of the supply to the needs.

Eventually, when labor finds the opportunity, there is little question but that it will take the leadership in attaining this goal. Much the same attitude taken toward secretarial work is held by labor toward general clerical workers, bookkeepers, and even toward salesmen. But since these fields are not as definite as is stenography, better control of these types of occupations must probably come even later.

It is interesting to note that office managers who have had no experience with unionization are very much frightened by the prospect of organized labor in their particular offices. They often show hostility to individual union members. Yet quite often these same office managers when compelled to accept a union office, soon find there are many advantages and often become strong advocates of unionization. As middle level managers they are sometimes caught between the interests of top level management and workers. They, therefore, at times find an effective union a worth while antidote to the arbitrary requirements of their superiors.

As unionization becomes more typical of office and sales force, the union leaders will become more concerned with the training and source of supply of beginning workers in these fields. While this development will create problems, without doubt, it can also be a basis for much improvement. The perennial problems of adequate training before employment, reasonable standards, promotional opportunity, and security may all find more or less adequate solution through unionization. It is true, however, that unionization may also cause disruption, interference with the conduct of school training and regimentation. What happens depends on the wisdom and co-operativeness of the office managers and

union leaders and, to a considerable extent, on the leadership of the teachers of clerical and sales workers

HOW THE INCREASE IN WHITE COLLAR WORKERS AFFECTS UNIONS

The increasing proportion of white collar to so called blue collar workers and the relative increase in employed women have had a tendency to slow the increase in unionization in the United States. This trend holds true in spite of the sharp drop in farm workers who have traditionally been nonunionized. This tendency might mean a lessening of union power if continued. The shift from blue collar to white-collar workers in industry has been paralleled by declines in the membership of such traditionally great unions as the auto, steel, and mine workers.

The growth of governmental workers also has had some influence on union membership for only about a seventh of such workers belong to unions. This may be partly explained by the fact that most governmental workers are office type workers, who tend to resist unionization.

There is little doubt that labor will do its best to combat this situation. It is altogether possible that some new economic development may change the situation completely and give the unions an opening into the white collar field. In 1930, no one would have conceived the tremendous strength that the auto workers unions would have achieved by 1940. In similar manner, as office workers tend to predominate, it is possible that their affinity with the blue collar worker will become more obvious to them. Furthermore, there is little doubt that clerical work is far less efficient than most production work. If clerical work is put on the same belt line control of output that is now typical of production work, it is quite possible that unionization will be facilitated. For the time being, however, the growth of unions in clerical work has clearly not made the progress that had been anticipated.

ATTITUDE OF LABOR TOWARD TEACHERS

Organized labor is a sturdy advocate for more freedom and better income for teachers. Here are some comments taken from a recent AFL bulletin.

The lack of freedom of the American teacher is alarming. It is this lack of freedom which more than any other factor, we contend, is responsible for the shortage of teachers in the United States today.

Teachers are told which organizations they must join, and which organizations they may not or should not join. They are urged, in every state to join the state education association, which actually is the Company Union, in education. Within 17 states teachers are required, as a condition of employment, to join this Company Union at the national, state or local level. In many places, dues for the administratively controlled teacher's association—the Company Union—are deducted from the teacher's salary often without his permission, before the teacher is paid.

On the other hand teachers are dismissed, in many places, for forming or joining a union. In other places, they are penalized in many other ways. They may be assigned to badly located schools; they may be given an extra heavy teaching load; they may be denied promotions; they may be openly attacked by their superior officers in a most humiliating manner, simply because they choose to join with their fellow citizens through the American Federation of Labor, to serve the common good and protect their own economic interests.¹

Union leaders feel that this lack of freedom and lack of support from administrator-dominated organizations is recognized to some degree by most teachers. It is a frequent topic of conversation in teachers' rooms, sometimes even when the principal is present, therefore, they wonder why teachers do little about it. Union advocates wonder why teachers fail to see that the strongest friend they have is organized labor. Teachers, as a rule, usually have a friendly feeling toward labor unions. They approve of the gains made by labor and look with approval upon unions in industry. Union leaders wonder why, when a teacher joins a union, his colleagues feel that while the act is not entirely sinful, it is at least indecently radical and they, therefore, co-operate with the administration in the silent persecution of the union member.

Teachers recognize that administration-controlled organization, however well meaning, will favor management at the expense of teachers when, as is often the case, a choice must be made. Union leaders wonder why teachers dissipate their effectiveness by joining numerous teacher organizations, none of which is strong enough to really act for them. Yet these same teachers fret that their salaries are not higher

¹ Labor and Education *op cit.*, pp 7-8

and are shocked to hear that the unionized garbage collector gets \$600 more as a beginning salary than they do

LABOR'S ATTITUDE TOWARD THE CONTROL OF EDUCATION

Organized labor insists that it should participate in the lay control of the schools. In the field of vocational education, labor is especially concerned with the formation of advisory boards on which labor is as fully representative as is management. These advisory committees should assist those in charge of vocational education in conducting studies and surveys to determine training needs, develop sound public relations, formulate policies, establish standards and programs for apprenticeship training, counsel with local authorities regarding qualifications and preparation required for vocational teachers, give occupational guidance to students, and make reports to interested groups which they represent.

ATTITUDE TOWARD THE SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

Although labor supported the enactment of the Smith Hughes Act, it has been disappointed in the manner in which much of the program has been carried out. Labor showed considerable opposition to the George Deen Act when it was passed in 1937 and questioned its value. In the field of distributive education which, under the George Deen Act of 1937, was supported by Federal aid for the first time, the American Federation of Labor questioned whether there was a need for a larger program of specialized training, whether a shortage of trained workers existed in these occupations, and whether adequate training could be given at all.

Organized labor was, in fact, quite critical of the entire George Deen Act because it felt that the development of the federally aided program of vocational education had fallen into the hands of people who were not sufficiently aware of labor production standards and the purposes of an adequate training program. It was felt that there were abuses in the use of the funds which encouraged overcrowding in certain trades and areas, that apprenticeship programs were at times operated for the benefit of business, and that all too often the programs resulted in lowering of wages in particular trades.

There is a serious questioning of an extensive program of vocational education at the secondary-school level. A generation ago the high school curriculum provided only for the prospective college goer and ignored those who would go directly into industry often before graduation. This situation is gradually being remedied, for the age of first employment is being moved upward. This results in making it possible for all boys and girls to have a nonspecialized secondary education leading to better life adjustment before beginning full-time employment.

On the other hand, organized labor is staunchly in favor of Federal aid for general education. The A F of L and the C I O have both gone on record, for example, as giving full support to the proposal to use the income from submerged oil lands to further public education rather than allow them to be developed for private profit.

Both labor groups have urged Congress to enact a general Federal aid bill for supplementing local expenditures for education and providing that individual states should make decisions as to whether nonpublic schools should be given Federal aid. This provision would take the problem of Federal aid for nonpublic schools out of the national picture and put it in the local scene. This action would help the states and yet reserve to them the decision of how education is to be conducted.

Labor is concerned that differences of opinion exist as to whether the states should be permitted to decide the granting of Federal aid to nonpublic schools. There is no question that the clash in opinions has held up such assistance. Certain administrator-controlled teacher's groups are bitterly opposed to any support to nonpublic schools, and the nonpublic schools are equally determined that they should have an opportunity to persuade the states to allow them to participate in Federal funds. Meanwhile the teaching program, so inadequately carried on in some of the less wealthy states, continues to suffer.

LABOR'S PARTICIPATION IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Another concern of labor is the development of business-education days, sponsored by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. Local businessmen have frequently been able to organize business industry-education days which, it is felt by union leaders, in many cases have presented only the point of view of management, often at the expense of labor. That this is to some extent true cannot be questioned.

Nevertheless, it would seem that the answer to this difficulty is not the elimination of such fine efforts to get co ordination between the community and the school, but for labor to either participate in the program by setting up business labor education day programs or by setting up additional labor education day programs. The primary responsibility for developing such programs rests with the labor groups, just as in the case of the education-business programs the initiative rested with the business groups. Nevertheless, business teachers, when they have responsibility for participating in such programs, should go more than half-way in encouraging labor-education programs either separate from, or in conjunction with, existing programs.

The same thing holds true in the distribution of materials that may present the viewpoint of labor and of business. After all, there is no question that management has the greater supply of funds and the better opportunity to work at the schools from above. The schools, therefore, must be especially certain that labor has unquestioned participation in any school program. Apart from the fact that labor is, without question, the single strongest friend of the school, there is the fact that it represents a large proportion of the population, pays an increasingly larger share of the taxes, and most important that fair play is one of the characteristics that the schools are most anxious to develop in the schools.

SOME NEWER ATTITUDES

As the labor unions mature and as the nature of the school program changes, the attitude of organized labor also changes. As the age for beginning employment goes upward, labor becomes increasingly concerned with a well-rounded educational program for all. Much that was formerly taught as related instruction (that is, training related to the job but not directly needed to perform a specific skill) is becoming a part of the core-curriculum. Moreover, labor is increasingly questioning highly specialized job training, especially that undertaken in trade schools. The general tendency now is to feel that work experience secured on the actual job is usually the best means of learning to do the specific job. It is felt, consequently, that much of what was formerly labeled vocational education becomes general education, and much of the specific job training might be better relegated to the plant or office.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 Why is labor friendly and uncritical toward general education and often suspicious and critical of vocational education?
- 2 Why do labor unions find it difficult to organize clerical workers? Is there likelihood of a change in this attitude?
- 3 What is likely to be the future attitude of labor toward business education?
- 4 Interview several leaders of labor in your area and check their opinions with those given in this chapter. Is there any difference in the attitudes of CIO and AFL leaders? Of organized and unorganized labor?
- 5 What were some of the earlier points of view toward education of organized American labor?
- 6 Why have unions at times discouraged specialized training?
- 7 Is there a conflict between labor's demands and educational practices?
- 8 How has recent legislation been affected by the attitudes of labor?
- 9 How has labor been affected by recent legislation especially in the field of education?
- 10 How does labor look upon business-education days and education-business days? Why?

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CHAPTER XV

The Learning Process in Business Education

ANY ANALYSIS of the learning process is based on certain fundamental assumptions. In this chapter, the consideration of the learning process in business education must be necessarily rather brief. The assumptions, therefore, on which this discussion is based are given as specifically as possible, so as to make clear the point of view that is presented.

INTEREST AND EFFORT IN BUSINESS TRAINING

The school is most successful when tangible and measurable abilities are taught. It is less successful when it attempts to deal with the imponderables, which are learned in everyday life. These it can, at best, supplement and to a certain degree correct.

Workers in business occupations must have certain skills and knowledges. Without these, they cannot be successful in business. If a student is interested in entering a business occupation and gives evidence of having the aptitude for such work, mere disinterest in a particular phase of business training because of subject-matter difficulty is not in itself a basis for the elimination of such subject matter. As a means of motivation, it is desirable that the student realize the worth-whileness of all subject matter, but if he cannot be made to recognize the value of a particular phase of it, this does not justify throwing out such learnings. Students must put forth effort in acquiring certain skills in business

The school, of course, can aid by offering a general method of thinking. Fortunately, most business subjects are ideally organized for teaching a method of thinking. There is a vast difference, however, between teaching people to reason and that of developing a method of organized procedure in coming to intelligent decisions, and in the latter the school can help in developing practicable techniques.

MASTERSHIP BASIC

Fundamental in the learning process is the need for thorough mastery of some subject matter. Inasmuch as the school is equipped to give students certain fundamental abilities that they cannot acquire through other educational processes, it is required to develop most thoroughly the learning that it expects the student to attain. Although highly correlated and interrelated with other institutions, the school must see to it that its training is thorough, otherwise the learning acquired is likely to evaporate quickly. The fundamentals, therefore, should not be learned merely to the threshold of learning or they will be forgotten very soon.

It is known that, soon after learning, the human mind begins a process of eliminating abilities and skills not immediately and constantly used. The very nature of learnings, moreover, developed in the school implies that these abilities are not constantly used and redeveloped in the immediate daily experience of the student. If they were, there would be no point in school learning, because they would be well acquired in non-school situations.

Subject matter of basic importance acquired, therefore, must not be merely learned, it must be so thoroughly mastered that it will not be forgotten. True, no matter how thoroughly a particular unit of abilities is learned, there will probably always be some forgetting. Where, however, adequate mastery has been developed, the forgetting process will not place the student below the level of ability to use his subject matter, and it will be easy to remaster it. If the learning, however, is lost, never having been thoroughly acquired, the problem of relearning is considerably accentuated. Mere learning, in other words, of a particular skill is not mastery. Mastery must be thought of as sufficient overlearning to ensure the continuous usefulness of the learning thereafter.

The law of forgetting is, possibly, the most fundamental law of

learning The failure to realize the need for overlearning is one of the most serious deficiencies of the American school system as contrasted with systems of other countries

All Learnings Need Not Be Mastered It is obvious, of course, that not all subject matter presented in the secondary school must be mastered Some subject matter is not taught for the purpose of final learning Some work is undertaken merely for the sake of its immediate interest and as a basis for motivating other learning

There should be a clear differentiation between these learnings of a temporary nature and those for which the school is definitely organized In the development of good work habits, for example, teachers may present many activities, situations, and temporary learnings that in themselves are not important These need not be mastered so long as the fundamental lesson that the teacher wishes to develop is mastered

PART VERSUS WHOLE LEARNING IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

A decade or more ago educational dogma assumed that part learning was very wasteful, and that whole learning was the answer to educational efficiency Some business situations are too difficult to present as a whole at one time Others are sufficiently simple, so that they can be taught as a unit For example, the insertion of papers in an envelope is a relatively simple process There are efficient and inefficient methods It is desirable for the school to make certain that students know the efficient methods They are so simple, however, that they can easily be taught as a unit

Taking dictation and transcribing a mailable letter is, however, quite another business activity In spite of its basic simplicity, hundreds of unit skills are involved It would be ridiculous, therefore, to attempt to teach the taking of dictation and transcribing as a unit, hence, the process is broken down into numerous simple learning steps Even the person who wants to teach dictation and immediate transcription on the typewriter does not expect a perfect product the first time. He realizes that he must simplify his vocabulary

Unfortunately, in realizing that part learning is necessary, some teachers break down the total unit of learning unnecessarily At one time, for example, it was thought desirable in teaching typing to withhold the teaching of the complete keyboard for many weeks, if not several

months. Students did not learn to write their own names on the type writer until toward the end of the term. Such part learning is unnecessarily simplified and results in loss of interest on the part of the learner.

There is an intelligent middle ground between teaching everything at one time and breaking down subject matter to almost infinitesimal segments. This intelligent middle ground is determined by many factors, such as the ability of the student, the complexity of the subject matter, and the skill of the teacher. Ordinarily, the brighter the student, the larger can be the unit of learning, ordinarily, the simpler the unit of learning, the more whole learning can be approached, the more skillful the teacher, the closer can be the approach to whole learning.

In on-the-job training, it has been found that it is unwise to attempt to teach more than from five to ten specific elements in one unit. For example, the insertion of two individual sheets of paper into an envelope on a quantity basis involves somewhere between six to eight steps, therefore, it can easily be learned as a whole by ordinary students. Making entries in a four-column cashbook involves 60 to 70 separate learning elements, therefore, it is unwise, except with unusually intelligent students, to attempt to teach entry making in a cashbook as a whole. As a matter of fact, no capable teacher would attempt this. He builds up knowledge and skills regarding specific elements, then, when he teaches the cashbook, he simply teaches six or seven steps that are merely combinations of previous learning. Teachers do not disagree about the futility of completely whole learning for complicated processes. They disagree only about how much can be learned at one time and how these units of learning can best be combined.

THE PROBLEM OF GENERALIZATION IN LEARNING

The conflict between whole versus part learning is often confused by bringing into it the problem of teaching generalizations as compared with specifics, for example, those who favor part learning say they do so because they feel that whole learning is a method of teaching through generalizations. Again, disagreement results when teachers go to extremes. It is wasteful to attempt to present principles without making certain that the specifics have been previously mastered. The tendency to become dogmatic about any of these problems causes disagreements. When particular teaching problems are faced, it is found that every

teacher must use generalizations. The *functional method* of teaching shorthand, for instance, is supposed to be a method of dealing with specifics and ignoring principles. Yet, unless the student acquires certain generalizations, he will never master shorthand. The disagreement does not involve the question of whether generalizations are to be learned, but how they are to be learned. Here again the question of whether generalizations should be taught first and then specifics, or vice versa, depends on the intelligence of the students, the skill of the teacher, the time available, and many other factors.

THE TWO BASIC APPROACHES TO LEARNING

No effort will be made in this chapter to deal with the detailed aspects of learning procedures in business education. After all, the specific techniques of teaching business education can and should be little different from those used in the presentation of other areas of learning.

There are two primary ways of learning—the teacher-centered procedure in which the learner has a passive role, and the developmental procedure in which the student primarily figures out the learning himself with the teacher serving merely as an instrument. Actually, all real learning procedures utilize both methods so interchangeably that the classifier is often at a loss to determine which particular method predominates.

As Edgar Barker, a business teacher of a previous generation, so well phrased it ¹

There are indeed two distinct ways of teaching. The one by stating the principles, and then using facts to illustrate them. The other by artfully presenting the facts in such a way that the pupil appears to advance to the principle and by his own ingenuity to discover it. This latter way may often be employed with advantage to the young. It is a close imitation of the way in which nature teaches, but for the advanced mind it is too tedious and appears childish.

But principles must be the constant aim of the teacher. He must know exactly what part of the subject he has put into the mind of his pupil, and by a just estimate of the powers of the latter, he must know what question

¹ Edgar Barker, "A Contribution to the History of Commercial Education," Eastern Commercial Teachers Association Brochure, 1903, pp. 11-12.

he is able to deal with. This constitutes the teacher's art, and it is as impossible to pass false instruction, except as to facts, either by a book or otherwise, on an accomplished teacher, no matter how new the subject to him, as to pass a counterfeit bill on a money broker.

There are certain fundamental doctrines which will be found as the basis of every elementary treatise recognized as sound and satisfactory.

1st. That to teach a subject is to teach or impart a knowledge of its principles.

2nd. The principles of a subject are the general truths which by analysis are found to explain the whole, or in other words to comprehend all its minor truths, and the fewer these general truths can be made the more perfect the analysis and the more simple the explanation.

SKILL DEVELOPMENTAL TRAINING

In developing business skills, such as shorthand, typing, office machines, and certain aspects of bookkeeping, the emphasis is necessarily upon pupil activity. It may be an exaggeration to state, as some have, that every moment of shorthand instruction is wasted unless the student is writing, reading, or checking shorthand. The emphasis in this idea, nevertheless, is sound. Too many teachers seem to think they can develop skill for their pupils merely by talking to them. Mere restatement of what is in the book, without evidence of need for correction, usually is wasteful. While it is difficult to label specifically the procedure used in skill learning, it can best be described as planned drill.

The planning of drill in order to achieve effective learning is quite as important as the drill itself. Mere repetition after a while becomes aimless activity, which only by accident results in improved learning. Fortunately, accidents are rather frequent, otherwise, some pupils would rarely learn. Timed tests, for example, in typing and other skill subjects often do have some marginal learning value. However, when they are repeated automatically day in and day out, without analysis of the errors made for correctional procedures, they become meaningless.

The *law of effect* is fundamental in good teaching. The effect, however, must be known by the learner. If the total result of a complete job cycle is satisfactory, the learner acquires not only the good practices but also the hidden weak practices in his procedure. It is the trainer's function to make clear these poor practices, so that the learner will be conscious of their effect, for example, in preparing a stencil, the finished

product may be fairly satisfactory even though it is a bit blurred. Unless the learner realizes that this blurring is caused by failure to strike the keys lightly but sharply, he will be satisfied. Once he has seen a good job, properly done, and compared it with his own job, he will see the effect of his uneven touch, then if he has been properly motivated, that is, if the law of readiness can operate, the practice that is given him will tend to be effective. The reverse is also true at times, in eliminating large units of unsound practice, minor good practices may be dropped because the learner is unaware of their value. Here again it is the teacher's function to create a pleasant effect by making the learner conscious of the desirability of the minor practice.

During the first few lessons of skill development, the teacher must take a more active role, but he should constantly aim at assuming a passive and corrective position as soon as possible. Because the classroom situation lends itself to teacher demonstration, he must particularly guard himself against overuse, just as much as against lack of use, of this teaching process.

It has been said that, if we want to see ourselves, we should look at others, and if we want to see others, we should look at ourselves. Most of us will benefit by observing the teaching of others. Unless the visitor is unusually fortunate, he is likely to accept an excess use of the telling procedure for skill development. The effect upon the observer should be wholesome. This does not mean that telling and teacher demonstration do not have a place in skill development. When such procedures are used, however, the trainer must make very certain that these procedures are mere preliminaries to the real learning process which involves pupil activity.

LEARNING FACTS

It is important to know certain facts. Teachers must, however, be careful that the facts are worth knowing. Fact acquisition must be based on a pattern presented either by the teacher, the textbook, a life situation, or some other source of information. The student must master this knowledge by memorization of some form or other, preferably by indirect learning. By astute use of questions and answers or formal testing, for example, the teacher must then measure the result of the practice. On this information, he bases a new series of learning exer-

cises and then tests again to determine adequacy of mastery. This should continue with as much variety as possible, until there is certainty that the student has thoroughly mastered the necessary information.

This involves the three laws of learning. There must be *readiness to exercise*, and *satisfaction from achieved learning*, or *dissatisfaction from failure to learn*. As pointed out before, not all facts brought to the students' attention must be mastered. Some are incidental to creating adequate atmosphere and broader comprehension, and an attempt to master them, is not only a waste but also actual interference with the mastery of the essential facts.

ACQUIRING UNDERSTANDING

The conference technique, widely used in industrial training, is most satisfactory for achieving understanding. The situation must be conducive to learning, that is, it must have motivation and the result must be satisfactory, that is, the *law of effect* must operate. However, the practice is very different from that used in acquiring knowledges and skills. Understanding comes from an organized interplay of individualized individual viewpoints. The conference technique is well fitted for achieving this. The teacher should accept for himself only the role of discussion leader and not be dictator of the discussion. He will sublimate his tendency to use his position to do all the talking.

All who are to acquire understanding should participate actively, if possible, and it should not be permitted that one or two members of the group dominate. The more reserved members should be drawn out. This cannot be done, however, unless the leader and the group are thoroughly aware of the understanding for which they are striving and only if they have the facts available upon which to base these understandings. Conference procedure functions best when there are from ten to twenty participants. When the group is larger, the leader is apt to become a lecturer, therefore, those aspects of learning that emphasize understanding should be developed with smaller groups. In skill training, where the learning can be individualized and wherein the trainer's function is one of setting the pattern and presenting corrective procedures to individuals or small groups, a larger number of learners can be given instruction at one time.

VERBAL LEARNING IN THE SCHOOL

One criticism of the school is that it has overemphasized verbal presentation. Verbal situations do lend themselves to distortion and to misinterpretations because the same words can mean different things at different times. Teachers should present the learnings of the school in terms of actual objective aids and materials. The very nature of the school, however, makes it emphasize verbal expressions. It is just because the precise use of words is not learned in daily life, because students do not learn to spell correctly, because students do not learn to add accurately, and because reading facility is not stimulated through daily life activities that the school is necessary. These fundamentals and most other elements in the core program are verbal by their very nature. Therefore, the attempt to make these subjects nonverbal often leads to absurd situations. The school by nature is concerned with verbal expressions and with verbal use of materials, and it therefore must essentially remain an institution for verbal learning.

Teachers must make certain, however, that students are constantly brought back to the ultimate implications of the words that are used. A balance sheet, for example, is a word picture of the status of a particular business at a particular time. There is no substitute for the words and figures used. Unless, however, this balance sheet is written in such form that it can be understood by the reader, it is a waste of effort. Note how meaningless the balance sheets of most large corporations are to stockholders. These balance sheets may be very meaningful to the accountants themselves and, it is to be hoped, to certain members of top management, but it is a waste of money to send them to stockholders in most cases.

CONFUSION OF ACTIVITY AND LEARNING

One of the outstanding faults of the school is its tendency to confuse activity with learning. Mere good work, for example, in the sense of a job done efficiently and carefully, is not learning; it is mere busywork. Cutting pictures out of magazines and pasting them into notebooks is not learning. Under certain conditions, and with careful planning, such activity may help a learning situation, but wherever a teacher is

tempted to create work situations, he should be especially careful to make certain that there is a tangible, meaningful learning outcome

Innumerable home assignments are given not because they create learning but merely to impress the parents and to make the students feel that they are doing something. This is a very easy procedure because, strange as it may seem, many pupils enjoy busywork. It is very easy to get pupils to do scissors and paste activity in the classroom. Pupils seem to actually enjoy copying innumerable notes from the blackboard into their lesson books. They are satisfied if they are being active—whether they are learning is often not important to them.

ACCURACY VERSUS SPEED IN SKILL DEVELOPMENT

The present emphasis is strongly in favor of speed as compared with accuracy in the initial stages of skill development. There is no doubt that excessive insistence upon complete accuracy resulted in actually learning to type slowly—a learning very difficult to unlearn. Several empiric and experimental studies have given support to this point of view. Again it must be realized that it is a matter of emphasis. Mere speed with complete disregard for result is also wasteful. The change is not so drastic as current literature might indicate. Good teachers have never been fanatically set on absolute accuracy, and good teachers will not at present ignore it. It seems evident, however, that minor errors are more easily overcome than the inertia of a slow pace of typing or dictation taking. The teacher of skills must be, in a large measure, a drill master in the best sense of the term. The skill master pushes his charges constantly to build up speed without undue lack of proficiency and then pushes them to mastership production without undue loss of speed, using every technique at his command to maintain interest until the desired level of skill is attained.

AUDIO VISUAL AIDS IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

Visual aids have become very important in teaching. Pictures often succeed in putting an idea across when words fail, therefore, visual devices are efficient tools in the hands of a good teacher. The usefulness of this type of material is, however, definitely limited. Much of what goes on under the name of visual education is not a means of learning, it is mere classroom activity. All too often teachers show films or use

pictures in the teaching process and assume that such presentations result in learning. Sometimes such visual aids are mere entertainment if they are good, if they are poor, they may even result in boredom. Usually, visual aids serve best if they are used as motivating devices. If they are unusually well planned, they may be used to serve as the basic presentation for a lesson. But at the present status of visual education, this is not usually true.

Many persons assume that films are the only kind of visual aid. In this they are in error. The blackboard is the simplest visual aid, and for the most purposes, still the most efficient. Maps, charts, graphs, pictures, models, cartoons, flash cards, and similar devices must also be classed as visual aids. In a sense, dramatizations, training manuals, textbooks, and demonstrations are visual aids.

The *blackboard*, for example, simple a device as it is, is often misused. When teachers spend an entire period, day in and day out, merely putting lesson outlines on the board with only occasional interruptions, learning is probably not taking place in the classroom. In all likelihood, the activity is mere busywork. Everything does not have to be put on the blackboard. There should be a specific reason for a blackboard outline, illustration, or other presentation. Planning in advance is required in order to determine what should be on the board. Unless the teacher is unusually well experienced, practice in being sure that the blackboard illustration serves the purpose is necessary. Some teachers have acquired the habit of making meaningless hieroglyphics on the board. Such habits only distract.

Recently a new device, which progressive schools may find worthwhile, has been developed. It is the *Visual Cast*, a device whereby the teacher can write on a translucent sheet that by electrical transmission reflects the material upon the wall behind the teacher. Thus, the instructor is facing the students, he can write in a normal situation, and yet the students can see the entire process of a word formation in shorthand, the process of transferring accounts in bookkeeping, or the gradual development of a model in economic geography. It should serve as a valued supplement to the blackboard.

The *filmstrip* (with or without recording), the silent motion picture, the motion picture with sound, and the projectoscope all can be valuable teaching aids. The motion picture, silent or with sound accompaniment, has rarely been completely adapted to teaching purposes. The

presentation is generally far too rapid to be absorbed by students. The equipment is expensive and obtaining the films is often a tedious process. The teacher should be very careful to know just what he is trying to accomplish and should set up all his paraphernalia in advance, so there is no waste of time. Obviously, he will have looked at the film several times in order to use it properly.

The filmstrip is probably the most useful of these projection types of visual aids. It can be presented as slowly as necessary, it may be turned back whenever needed, it is relatively inexpensive and quite easy to set up. Moreover, there are far more good filmstrips available for classroom purposes than there are motion pictures.

The *projectoscope* is useful in projecting pictures, written material, and any other type of flat illustration on a wall.

When teachers assume that visual aids are a substitute for good teaching the result is disastrous. As training aids, they can make a significant contribution to learning. Sometimes they can be used to illustrate particular processes, but in every case, specific teaching must parallel the use of the training aid. Occasionally they can be used effectively for review purposes.

STUDENT-CENTERED LEARNING AS A FORM OF METHODOLOGY

The child's learning needs, certainly in his younger days, can be acquired better in nonschool situations than in school situations. If teachers, however, have to "tend" the child in school, then the school would have to serve as a basis for supplementing the out-of-school learning.

At best, child situations and child environments should be used as a basis for motivation. Even this, however, has been far greatly exaggerated. It is not always desirable to begin with the child's own environment and the child's own situation as motivation. Often, the use of an immediate experience—by the very fact that it is so close—spurs motivation. There is no mystery, nothing bizarre, about the things that the child knows. Often teachers can create greater interest (that is, greater motivation) by using situations entirely remote from the child's experience. Then the curiosity of the child is really aroused. There is little doubt that interest in the foreign languages, at least in the beginning levels,

and in subjects like shorthand is caused by the fact that these subjects are mysteries to the uninitiated. The child can make curlicues and figures on paper and say they represent actual words and sounds, and the uninitiated is completely mystified. This is a strong motivation for human beings, and the desire for mystery is especially keen on the part of children and adolescents.

To assume that the child, in his very brief span of learning and even briefer period of school learning, can by mere curiosity learn all the things that are conceived as being fundamental is ridiculous. For the most part, that which is called curiosity on the part of children is just transitional "nosiness." Anyone who assumes that teachers could use curiosity of an intrinsic nature as the sole motivation for teaching all aspects of reading, writing, and calculating does not understand the average child and the school situation.

As William James himself pointed out, "It is nonsense to suppose that every step in education can be made interesting." This is especially true of the limited and specialized forms of learning to be acquired by school education. It must be realized that those learnings acquired outside of school are by their very nature based on interest. It is because sheer curiosity and interest do not serve as a basis for learning in certain types of fundamental abilities necessary for human beings that school learning must be organized, and for precisely this reason, a considerable amount of extrinsic motivation must be set up for learning in the school.

It is true that it may happen, now and then, that the child comes across problems that he cannot solve more or less satisfactorily to his own wishes and therefore may desire guidance and aid in their solution.

Children have problems—innumerable problems—but most of these are not of the type for which children will go to school for solutions. Nonetheless, the individual teacher can often provide partial solutions *until the home or some other agency takes over, or until the child finds it possible to find a solution himself.* No teacher is a magician, but he is in an excellent position to take positive action, even if it is little more than to give sympathy.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

It is necessary to recognize individual differences and to adjust teaching to each individual, but to assume that every individual must be

treated as an individual, apart from other individuals all the time, is not sensible nor practical. The school that, because of economic necessity, must have somewhere between twenty five and thirty if not more, pupils in each classroom simply cannot give too much attention to the individual. In fact, the individual must not be permitted to exaggerate his own individual uniqueness, for, as a matter of fact, he is not unique. He has two billion peers, and he must learn to get along with them. It is because individuals consider themselves unique that we often have trouble.

While in certain ways, individuals, particularly in the problems that they create, are individuals, their differences tend to group themselves so that teachers do not always have to deal with each child as an absolute individual. True, there will be variants even within these subgroups, but for practical school purposes these differentiations according to major types will usually serve rather satisfactorily to allow for the necessary variants in inheritance and environment which confronts us.

TRANSFER OF TRAINING

In this book comparatively little attention can be given to the technical problem of transfer of training. Most educators in recent years are inclined to believe that transfer of training probably takes place by many different processes. The misinterpretations of the research of Thorndike and his followers led to the belief that apparently there was no transfer of training. This point of view was never substantiated by the research actually undertaken. Obviously there is transfer of training. We learn by vicarious experience, otherwise everyone would have to be hit by a car in order to avoid having an accident in the future.

The school cannot be the primary institution that achieves transfer of training facilities for the pupil that is the function of all life, rather than only of school life. The unique function of the school is to present certain fundamental skills the community as a whole automatically provides for the generalization of these learnings, so that they can be readily transferred to many situations.

The school, however, can participate in facilitating the development of transfer of training values. In dealing with the problem of tardiness in the classroom the teacher faces a problem somewhat different from

that which is faced by the office executive. The motivation for promptness is different in the two cases, and the kinds of punishment that can be administered are different. Yet, recognizing this limitation, teachers of business education classes can set up classroom conditions as similar to those of the job as possible, and then deal with infractions much as an office manager or the store manager would, rather than in the traditional manner of the school teacher.

Teachers must make school conditions as identical to those of the job as possible. Only then will there be the identity of elements necessary for transfer. Teachers must so thoroughly inculcate the habits they wish to develop that these habits will become an aspect of the personality of the student. Only in this way will this training become sufficiently generalized to carry over to the job situation. If a teacher of business subjects insists on good handwriting, and all the other teachers permit illegible handwriting, then the probabilities are that transfer of training to the job will not take place because good handwriting has not become a generalized habit. The student, therefore, will not transfer to the job situation unless in the job situation the same rewards and punishments are maintained as were maintained in the business education classroom.

TESTING IN SCHOOL PROCEDURE

In an effort to make teaching techniques more adequate, a vast testing program has been set up in recent years. This program has made a contribution to educational efficiency that could not otherwise be attained. The schools have not, by far, reached the limit of efficiency in testing. In fact, much of the criticism of organized, objective testing is based largely on the inefficiency and inadequacy of the tests themselves, rather than on the unsoundness of testing as a technique in teaching. The criticisms are also based upon the misuse of the tests and upon the false conclusions drawn from their results. Tests cannot be adequately used as a basis for all kinds of prognosis, because prognosis is often not possible under present conditions. However useful and significant the objective testing movement has been, it will never completely substitute for the old fashioned, well planned question and-answer procedure which, while it is a teaching and a learning procedure, is at the very same time a testing technique. It still is more difficult to

set up objective tests that measure abilities rather than merely memorized knowledges

Testing is an integral part of the entire teaching process, and testing, which is looked upon as a climax rather than a phase of the teaching process, is, by its very nature, only a basis for grading and record keeping. Record keeping and credit giving for accomplishment have their places in a mass-production system such as the public schools necessarily must be, but they should not be allowed to take the place of the primary function of testing, that is, the diagnosis for readaptation of teaching processes to improve learning. Without adequate testing techniques, the schools cannot set up, in the final analysis, a more efficient school system, for when teachers expect the public to accept their supposed achievements on mere faith, they are asking for something for which they have no justification. Only when teachers can prove the tangible and measurable achievements of their teaching to the public can they expect its support for those aspects of teaching that are assigned to them.

Education as a whole, by its very nature, cannot be a science, but certain aspects of it, particularly the measurement technique, can be made more scientific. It is in this aspect of education that scientific methodology can make its greatest contribution.

THE USE OF TEXTBOOKS IN SCHOOL LEARNING

In recent years, there has been a bitter complaint against the use of textbooks in the schools. It has been stated that teachers become mere textbook users, that they are only assigners of jobs in textbooks and checkers to see whether the students have accomplished this assigned work. Undoubtedly, some teachers use the textbook merely as a basis for the assignment of jobs, which are largely busywork in character. But it can probably be said with more justification that, without the textbook, school learning would be hopelessly inefficient instead of as surprisingly competent as it is. Considering the small salaries paid to teachers in some parts of the United States, as compared with other countries, and considering the tremendous turnover in teaching personnel, the learning in the American schools is substantial. A considerable part of the credit for this accomplishment can be given to the splendid textbook materials available in the United States. One has

only to look over the textbooks available in the schools of large European countries and compare them with American textbooks, both in quality and in price, to see what a great boon the American textbook is. Undoubtedly, in recent years, textbooks have become far too much picture books and reiterations of learnings that have already been accomplished, but this does not change the fact that, far from making too much use of textbooks, the American schools probably spend too little on textbooks.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1 What do you think of the problem of creating interest in learning in business education? The point of view expressed in this chapter differs from that of some leading educators. Find out their point of view.

2 Why is mastership so important in skill development? What types of learning need not be mastered? When does the teacher know a skill or part of a skill has been mastered?

3 Must skills be generalized to be applied? How does one generalize a skill? How does the teacher know when a skill has been generalized? Make your explanation specific with definite illustrations.

4 What are the two fundamental approaches to the learning process? Under what conditions would you use one or the other? Illustrate.

5 What are the basic characteristics of skill development training? How does such training differ from fact learning?

6 What are the essential characteristics of acquiring understanding? How should the attitude of the teacher be different?

7 Does the paragraph on acquiring understanding give a complete presentation of the problem? What other elements are involved in teaching for understanding?

8 Comment on the problem of verbal learning in the school.

9 Why are student and teacher activity and learning confused? What safeguards can the teacher set himself to make certain that classroom activity results in learning?

10 Read several articles on the needs in initial skill building for speed development, even at the expense of accuracy in current articles. Expand the paragraph given in this chapter on the basis of your reading.

11 Study several available audio-visual aids in business education. Evaluate them. Read current comments on such aids in business education. Determine their classroom use.

12 Why is it important for the teacher to take into consideration differences between individuals and their ability to do school work?

13 What is the present status of the controversy about possibilities of the transfer of training? What influence does the opinion you have about the transfer of training have upon your teaching of business subjects?

14 Why is testing an integral part of the learning process? "That which can not be measured does not for all practical purposes exist." What do you think of this statement? What would be its implications if it were true?

15 The textbook is a vital element in school learning. Why is this so? What are the implications of this statement?

SELECTED READINGS

In addition to this limited list, many articles on methods of teaching business subjects will be found in the current literature of business education. See the *Business Education Index* for specific references.

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CHAPTER XVI

Techniques in Developing Courses of Study

CONSTANT CHANGES in occupational life result in a need for constant changes in training procedures. New courses must constantly be devised to meet changed job situations. When training is given without adequate planning based upon actual occupational needs, it is likely to be ineffective. In the period ahead, further occupational changes will take place, resulting in even more adjustment in course-of-study materials. If a training program is to be given for a half-dozen workers, and if the training need be given only once, program makers obviously are not justified in giving the same amount of attention to course making that would be justified if this training were to be given to several thousand trainees. If a course is to be used for several years, almost any amount of time given to course planning that will produce better results is justified. In the procedures suggested in this chapter, modifications will always be necessary to meet individual cases—eliminating many of the details suggested, or sometimes elaborating on them. The general structure, nevertheless, will serve as a guide in planning any course of study.

Possibly in Utopia, where all teachers are perfect, or in an educational system where "a Mark Hopkins sits on one end of a log and a James Garfield sits on the other," the selection of the subject matter in a course of study can be left to the choice and inspiration of the individual instructor. In view of the trying circumstances under which most teachers work, however, the ill-fitted and specialized training that they

have received, the large size of classes, and the heavy teaching loads, well defined courses of study are *sine qua non* of a good system

The course of study should not shackle the progressive teacher, rather, it should aid him to execute his task more efficiently. The ideal course should help the student learn "to do better those desirable activities that he will do anyway" In the preparation of courses of study, therefore, actual desires and activities of students should be given first consideration, and the beliefs of educational theorists should be secondary

CURRICULUM AND COURSE OF STUDY DIFFERENTIATED

A curriculum and a course of study must be differentiated A course of study is a selection of topics closely grouped around a major interest It is synonymous with "subject." Business law, for example, is a course of study A curriculum is a series of courses whose goal is the attainment by the student of a high standard of education in the broadest sense of the word A curriculum is often adapted to a more or less specific level of vocational efficiency Naturally, the first step in selecting subject matter is to determine the educational efficiency that is to serve as the curricular goal

The selection of subject matter involves at least two processes (1) the selection of subject matter for individual courses, and (2) the development of a curriculum out of a series of courses In most respects, curriculum construction is only an extension of course making, hence, the material in this chapter can, to some extent, serve as a foundation for a discussion of curriculum construction, although discussion of this task will not be specifically undertaken here

SELECTION OF SUBJECT MATTER

There are two general ways in which subject matter can be selected—subjectively and objectively The distinction between the two methods is not absolute and in the final analysis is purely a matter of degree

In seeking a starting point from which to make the selection of subject matter, there also appear to be two groups, marked by divergent attitudes One group, the subjectivists, would begin with present courses and build upon them The other group, the objectivists, would start *de novo* The latter tend to ignore the present program as completely

as possible Here again the distinction is relative rather than absolute

The Subjective Method In the subjective method, the course-of-study builder marshals his prejudices and personal experiences and then goes to work He generally analyzes existing courses in an effort to determine what is wrong with them Thus he "corrects" weaknesses in accordance with his ideas of how children should learn Whether or not they learn as he thinks they should is irrelevant

Sometimes the subjectivist recognizes that other educators whose opinions count must be consulted He, therefore, calls them together, and by the least number of compromises, gets them to agree upon a curriculum The compound wisdom of a committee of experts, he feels, cannot be wrong This procedure has been called (by its opponents, of course) 'the method of collective ignorance' Adversaries of the method say that the pooling of much ignorance does not create less ignorance, but more

Some national committees appointed for the purpose of curriculum making have had great influence Among them were the Committee of Ten on Secondary Education of 1893, the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association of 1899, and the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, 1915 These committees (for the most part composed of university professors) formulated what they believed high school students ought to know They were largely influenced by the demands of colleges and probably gave only incidental attention to the problems of typical boys and girls or men and women

Sometimes the subjective course maker attempts to give an objective cast to his program by undertaking a survey of existing courses of study, in order to find out what is being taught An analysis, in terms of frequency, of the surveyed material is often the basis of many courses, a procedure that assumes that the average is right In practice, the survey method tends to continue existing curricular weaknesses There is no evidence that courses formed in this way meet the demands of society better than those upon which they are based

Need for Subjective Selection of Subject Matter The "scissors and paste" method, for all its subjectivity, is useful and necessary within its limitations In fact, it was the prevalent method until about 1900, when the scientific movement in education appeared The present high school program is still largely a result of this process of selection By

and large, curricula and courses have changed for the better, although progress is slow and lags behind the realities of contemporary life. But this may be said with equal truth of other social institutions, law, for example, evinces an even greater lag than the school curriculum.

The only way in which the ultimate objectives of education can be determined is on a basis of subjective judgment. The purposes of education are, in the final analysis, a matter of opinion, and, therefore, the core about which all educational endeavor revolves must be subjective. Only the details can be determined objectively.

In many cases it may be more desirable to use the judgments of frontier thinkers rather than those of pseudoscientific (supposedly objective) doctrinaires. In no case is it possible to remove completely the subjective element from curriculum materials. In many instances, the so-called objective method is merely an impersonal way of choosing personal opinions.

The Objective Method In the objective method of subject matter selection, no references are made to existing subject matter. Significant elements are determined objectively. By this means, the formalism of the old course of study is avoided, and the new course of study is freed as far as possible from previous prejudices, and can, therefore, approximate more closely the actual needs of students. Although in the past the subjective method has been used exclusively, the more progressive curriculum makers now tend to adhere to objective procedures.

TWELVE BASIC QUESTIONS IN COURSE-OF STUDY MAKING

In the complete process of course making, at least twelve major questions must be answered. They may be summarized as follows:

- 1 Why? (Position training justification)
- 2 What? (Activities, attitudes, and traits)
- 3 How well? (On the acquaintanceship or mastership level?)
- 4 Where? (On the job? In school? After hours?)
- 5 What equipment and facilities? (How many units? Special training manuals?)
- 6 When and how long? (Grade level of students and ability level? One week? One month? As part of another project?)
- 7 In what sequence? (Chronological? Most important topics first?)

- 8 How? (How are duties performed? How learned?)
- 9 How teach? (To what degree?)
- 10 Who shall teach? (Job supervisor or high school staff? Both?)
- 11 To whom? (Boys? girls? both? Ability level?)
- 12 How evaluate? (By follow up? Special tests?)

EXPLANATION OF STEPS IN COURSE OF STUDY MAKING

1 *Why give the course?* This question involves the justification of the program in terms of job value. Do workers need to be trained for this purpose? If so, is the training better given informally or formally? Should it be given by the employing agencies themselves? Or should the trainees learn the work on off-the job hours?

2 *What should be taught* is based to some degree on why a particular ability is taught. This gives the general pattern. The actual training details, however, should be based on an actual study of job needs. This involves some form of job analysis. This procedure will be considered in detail, as many clerical trainers are called upon to undertake this step. The maker of the course of study must be thoroughly familiar with the job breakdown technique, so as to include the important teaching elements, the key points, and related activities. This job analysis to determine the number of duties performed in each position and the frequency of their occurrence is not adequately treated elsewhere.

3 *How well each duty should be learned* depends on a number of factors. If the worker needs just slight training in order to make use of a skill on the job and can then develop mastership there, acquaintance-ship is sufficient. In other cases the worker is useless unless he has developed mastership previous to job use. This must be determined from a study of the actual job.

4 *Where the course should be taught* requires a study of the available space. Shall it be given at the regular desks, or in a special training room? This is determined in part also by the place where the work is to be learned—on or off the job.

5 *With what equipment and facilities* the course is taught depends on the job needs and the materials available. Will the trainee make use of equipment? Are special devices needed in learning? (For example, blackboards, typewriting shields, and so forth.) To what extent will learning on the operational facilities interfere with operations?

6 *When shall the training be given and how long?* One week? One month? Until the trainee has achieved an adequate level of skill? On a present assignment basis, or in service?

7 *In what sequence* the course shall be taught depends on a number of factors. Sometimes teachers wish to train workers in those duties that are most important because they are not certain that there will be time enough to teach the rest. Sometimes the logical organization of the learning is most important and would therefore be preferred.

8 *How are activities performed on the job?* It does not always follow that job performance is the best method of learning. For example, the average stenographer does not go through the process of figuring actual space requirements for each individual letter. The competent stenographer has such a good sense of the amount of space needed for each letter that he can produce a balanced letter almost instinctively. This sense of letter balance is not, however, achieved automatically. The beginner needs to know, for example, that for a letter of 75 words, he can start the inside address about 8 lines down from the date, and that there should be about 40 words to a line. For a 250-word letter, a different set of requirements is needed. As the stenographer becomes more competent, he will neglect these formal rules in preference to the more rapid sensing of the requirements, which he has gradually developed.

9 *The manner in which the teaching material shall be taught* must be carefully determined. Sometimes a straight lecture procedure is adequate. Again the job-sheet procedure is most desirable, especially if the teacher has only limited time for instructional purposes and if training is given individually. Also involved is the problem of the degree of thoroughness to which the material shall be presented.

10 *Who shall teach the course?* In on-the-job training, for example, should a competent worker or a training specialist do the teaching? If a competent worker is to be the trainer, provision should be made for giving him detailed aid in working out the teaching procedures. If a training specialist is to give the training, there must be assurance that he has full opportunity to learn the work and that he has made use of his opportunities.

11. *To whom shall the course be taught?* The selection of students is basic. It requires particular care, because in most cases prognostic testing is not by itself an adequate basis for selection.

12 *Evaluation is necessary* in order to be able to report on the effectiveness of the program. A follow-up of learners to determine how effectively they are using their training on the job is frequently most useful. It also serves as a means of improving instruction and may point a way to remedial training. Testing after several weeks on the job may be another means of determining the value of training. Judgments of supervisors and of the trainees themselves are useful, though they may be biased.

PROCEDURES IN COURSE-OF-STUDY MAKING

When subjective methods are used, the course-of-study maker figures out what he thinks the course should contain. He may secure some guidance or even copy some other course of study or textbook. The teachers may elect a course-of-study-making committee and ask them to work out a course, often with the aid of businessmen and so-called experts from organizations specializing in course-of-study making—such as universities or state departments of education. Such experts will at least be in the know about the latest fashion of course-of-study making. They may even recommend that the course be called a “scope and sequence” or a “program of resource units.”

When the course-of-study maker wishes to be more objective, he must first determine the elements that go into a course. The most tangible and usually the most objective procedure is that of the job analysis. Therefore, in this chapter considerable space will be devoted to the job analysis as a basis for course-of-study making.

How and What Elements Are Analyzed?

When the job analysis is used to discover the activities of a given position in order to devise learning specifications, at least four methods may be followed: introspection, interviewing, working on the job, and the questionnaire. Usually all these are employed in varying degrees.

The analysis may be made of.

- 1 Duties, job operations, or steps undertaken (See page 253 for explanation of terms)
- 2 Difficulties or errors involved in performance

- 3 Method of performance
- 4 Function of the position
- 5 Skills involved in performance
- 6 Attitudes or character traits required in the position

Data may be obtained from one, several, or all of these job elements, at one time or separately. Attitudes and traits required in a position are frequently better analyzed separately, because they are more intangible and the learning process is different.

AN EXAMPLE OF A JOB ANALYSIS

One good way of learning how to carry through a job analysis is to study the classic "The Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits,"¹ which, in spite of its many weaknesses, is still one of the best analyses of a business or clerical occupation available. Here is a brief outline of the main steps taken in making the study.

1 The analysts asked several secretaries to keep informal records of their duties. This resulted in a compilation of 166 specimen duties, which were classified, for convenience, under eleven major headings.

2 A time chart was developed as a means of obtaining a more complete list of secretarial duties. This time chart was filled in by 125 secretaries. They kept a full record of all their duties for one full week. At the close of each day, they wrote in on the time sheet the actual duties they performed in 15 minute intervals. These 125 secretaries performed 871 secretarial duties.

3 In addition, the secretaries were asked a series of questions formulated for use in interviewing these workers. The soundness of each question was checked by preliminary interviews.

4 A list of business firms was made up to assure an adequate distribution of companies and also a balance between small and large firms.

5 Care was taken to interview superior workers. In doing so, consideration was given to finding workers with diverse educational backgrounds.

6 The method of interviewing was carefully planned. Reports were written up as soon after the interview as possible. A week later the analyst returned to obtain the time chart that the secretary had written up and to obtain any additional information about the performance methods.

¹ W. W. Charters and Isadore B. Whaley, *The Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Traits*.

7 The secretaries were also asked about their judgments in regard to supplementary schooling, promotional possibilities, difficulty of various duties, need for learning duties on the job or in the school, and similar topics

8 Fifteen hundred secretaries were asked by mail to check those duties that they performed Replies were received from 712 workers in various types of business

9 In a second aspect of the study, character traits were determined by questionnaire and interview methods The basic data were obtained from the employers rather than the employees Although some information of this kind was obtained from the secretaries themselves in the duty analysis, the employers who furnished data were representatives of many types of business and were as far as possible leaders in their line

10 The data were translated into abstract traits and defined in terms of specific situations suggested by the employers Thus an organized picture of the things secretaries actually are required to do and of the manner in which they are required to do them was obtained

11 Suggestions were made for additional procedures that might reveal further job information

12 Suggestions were made for converting the information received into courses of study for training secretarial workers

Some Limitations of the Job Analysis Technique Course-of-study makers tend far too frequently to begin immediately to write up their programs Most course-of-study makers could, therefore, not follow through the elaborate details worked out by Charters and Whitley, because they need to organize their facts into training materials immediately and could not take the time required Moreover, the procedure does not provide a learning and teaching breakdown of the steps in each job Therefore, considerable adaptations of the procedures used by Charters and Whitley will always be necessary It is strong on analysis, weak on synthesis

Here is a typical procedure A group of experienced job supervisors are asked to sit in with teachers They discuss the job needs, obtain as many different courses of study that have already been organized as possible, and determine the major elements that will go into the course Because of their experience, these supervisors and teachers will not base their judgments on thin air, nevertheless, they do not have readily on hand the basic training needs A good course-of study training procedure requires that the analyst always make some organized study of

the job needs Retrospection is helpful It is known, however, that retrospection is always colored by the individual wishes and previous background Moreover, judgments made in terms of unplanned thinking naturally tend to emphasize those errors that took place in the office just before the meeting was held Thus these elements are given undue weight Another weakness of the job analysis is that it emphasizes concrete activities The thinking that goes on in undertaking an activity is usually ignored Finally, in the case of Charters and Whitley, a major weakness is their complete failure to differentiate between duties, jobs, operations, and even steps Charters and Whitley jumble them all together

THE ERROR ANALYSIS AS A TECHNIQUE

Analysts, therefore, should make an actual study of the job situation In determining the content of a course in remedial English, it may be based on an adequate number of actual examples of poor English found in job situations Any course given on the job must necessarily be remedial, for the workers have usually had several months, if not many years, of training

Moreover, if the course is to be given to secretaries, then the examples of poor usage should be those that may be corrected by secretaries Some types of poor usage can be improved only by the correspondents themselves It is futile to spend time on training stenographers to make such corrections All such training does is to lower their morale, for it may make them aware of job deficiencies that are beyond their power to correct

How many cases of poor usage are adequate? One hundred? Five hundred? Ten thousand? Is it possible to pass judgment in advance? Here is a procedure that is not too unsatisfactory Tabulate cases until they seem sufficient Then find an additional 10 per cent of cases If these additional 10 per cent of cases give usage errors that in no way change the total picture, then no more material is needed If it changes the picture materially, then obviously much more data should be obtained

The problem of obtaining facts of this type should not be too difficult Usually there is some check on correspondence before it is finally sent out The persons rendering this service can easily keep 4x6 cards at

their side and jot down cases of poor usage as they find them. If a sufficient number of persons can be encouraged to do this for a few days, an adequate body of evidence will be obtained. This of course requires that the reviewers understand the problem. They must be made to feel that this additional work will result in something worth while. A brief training session in filling in the cards, so that the material will actually be usable, may be helpful.

LIMITATIONS OF THE JOB ANALYSIS

The job analysis has several limitations. At present, the methods of analysis are not highly refined. Useful analysis demands great care and objectivity, combined with expertness of technique.

The use of an occupational analysis brings up the question of transfer of training. Learning and doing are two different things. When job analysis is used as the basis for a course of study, it is assumed that the transfer of training from a learning situation to a performing situation takes place under ideal conditions.

A job analysis reveals what men actually do at work, but not what they should do. As business itself is not perfect, business courses of study cannot be entirely based on current business procedure. While education is sometimes prevented from acting as a telic agent, this function should always be its ideal. Education should not only promote the application of the best business practices, but should also delineate the nature of future improvements.

An occupational analysis presents a picture of men working at specific, and often minute, tasks. It does not synthesize seemingly unconnected segments into the unified process.

The job analysis presents only the occupational bases for making a course of study, although usually there are other purposes for which the course is given.

The job analysis is fairly satisfactory for routine or mechanical occupations, but when the activities are primarily mental, the analysis can reveal only a fragment of the responsibility of the employee.

In spite of its limitations, the job analysis is still the best foundation on which to construct a course of study, and, with proper refinement, many of its weaknesses may be reduced to insignificance.

SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION OF SUBJECT MATTER, BASED ON JOB ANALYSES

The material that goes into a course must be organized into usable teaching units, so that learning may take place with the greatest possible efficiency.

Here is a procedure that might be used in working out a training project based upon analysis of training needs

- 1 If the material has been analyzed in terms of frequency, and if there are too many elements, it would be wise to select only those operations or errors listed most often. Usually it is not wise to deal with more than 75 to 100 elements at one time. Thus if there are 300 duties, a course maker might only consider the top (most frequent) quarter. If there are close to 1,000 duties, he might consider only the top tenth.

- 2 From these operations or errors those must be selected that can be taught in a training project. Some learning elements are so intimately connected with the job that they can be learned only on the job. Obviously if there are learning difficulties involved in these elements, provision must be made for at-the-desk training by the supervisor. The selection of elements that are to be taught off the job is made on the basis of (a) teacher's judgments, (b) opinions of those who have recently learned the work, (c) experimentation, (d) or a combination of these.

- 3 Those elements that are very easy to learn may need little or no consideration in in-service training because they are easily acquired. Such differentiation is desirable in order not to clutter up the training program with unessential elements. Those that are especially difficult require emphasis in the training program.

- 4 Some decision must be made upon the importance of each element. For example, an activity undertaken infrequently or an error rarely made, may, however, be so consequential that it must be given serious emphasis.

- 5 Some organized tabulation of these facts should then be worked out, which will indicate (a) the element to be taught, (b) the degree of emphasis that should be placed upon it, (c) relative importance, (d) attitudes or traits that must be taught directly with each department, (e) related training needed.

6 These actual materials must then be organized into training units. Unfortunately this is necessarily a subjective process. The teacher should consult with other people to make certain that his organization is sound. It might be wise to have two different course-of-study makers set up independent plans, so that soundness of sequence, position in the training project, and the like of each procedure can be determined independently.

7 The specific methods by which each error may be avoided or by which each duty may be best performed should then be determined. This may require going back to the actual job situation. Expert workers in the position should be observed and consulted. Training emphasis must be determined. How thoroughly should each learning element be taught? Should mastery be obtained, or is acquaintance sufficient? The decision should rest partly on the opinion of the novice and partly on the views of experienced workers. As suggested before, the method of job performance is not necessarily the best learning method.

8 It might be desirable to compare the content of a newly organized training project with those already in existence to (a) determine whether possible elements have been ignored, (b) get suggestions for improvement of a new course in terms of existing materials, and (c) determine which element of existing materials may be utilized in the new program. This should be done after the material has been obtained from job needs so as not to influence the course maker.

9 Sequence and length of a training project must be determined—first, purely subjectively and then experimentally. A project manual should not be distributed for general use until it has been used at least once and found adequate. More time or less might be required than was anticipated, more training materials or less may be required. The test procedure may not be satisfactory.²

In adapting this procedure to work out a project in English usage, a considerable number of adaptations would be necessary. Nevertheless, the general pattern is clear. There will be different variations in the process of course-of-study making. Nevertheless, each program must

² See also Paul S. Lomax, *Commercial Teaching Problems*, p. 85. Also W. W. Charters, "A Functional Secretarial Curriculum," *The American Shorthand Teacher* VI (1925) pp. 3-7, 32.

follow this general pattern; otherwise, the outcome will not be adequate.

Courses of study must result in training manuals if they are to be really effective. Every training manual, unless there are some very special reasons, must contain at least the following elements:

EXAMPLE OF A JOB BREAKDOWN

The job breakdown, as used in business, is a form of teaching plan or job instruction sheet. It gives in detail all the things that must be done and how to do them correctly.

Here is the way most people would tell another person how to proofread. "Have one person read from the original draft and have the second person check the typed material. Note all errors on the typed copy and use this as a basis for retyping." This explanation is inadequate for learning and teaching purposes. If a person can follow these directions, he already knows how to proofread.

Here is a breakdown which can be used for actually teaching this clerical and secretarial skill.³ Note that each step is presented in detail and that each step carries the process along to the point of completion:

Job Breakdown of Proofreading Copy Removed from the Typewriter

Equipment: Desk or table, chair, mameoscope (for proofreading stencils), ruler, colored pencils, folders, dictionaries, office manuals, and other reference materials peculiar to the checking to be done.

Materials: Original rough draft, or copy, and typed copy to be checked. (This may be a stencil, typed copy, master sheet, original for photo-offset or Multilith. It may be straight copy, correspondence, statistics, etc.)

Note: Comparers can hear each other more effectively when sitting across from each other at a desk or table. If this is impossible, sitting side by side will do.

³ Adapted from Elizabeth T. Van Derveer, "Patterns of Performance for the Most Frequent Duties of Beginning Clerical Employees," Ed D. Study, New York University, 1951

<i>Steps*</i>	<i>Key Points†</i>
1 Separate original draft from typed copy	1 Original draft is material from which the typed copy was prepared.
2 Give original to reader and retain the typed copy, correction pencils should be close at hand	2 When the person who has typed the final copy is one of the proof readers, the original copy should be given to the second person
3 Lay typed material on the desk or reading desk if one is available	3. Use a lighted mimescope for a stencil.
4 Read from the typed copy in a clear, low voice as rapidly as the comparer can follow	4 Follow the rules for efficient proofreading
5 Circle the word or phrase on the original in which an error appears on the typed copy	5 Use a colored pencil
6 Return the typed copy and the original to the typist for correction or retyping when necessary	6 Typist should retype copy <i>only</i> when correction is impossible
7 Repeat proofreading operation for retyped copy	
<i>or</i>	
Check corrected errors on corrected copy	
8 Dispose of correct copy according to use to be made of it.	8 Mail file, or distribute within organization

In order to serve its purpose as a guide to efficient production, a job breakdown on a given type of letter must give the typist specific directions as to what steps he is to take and in what sequence he must take them to assemble the proper materials, set up the machine to produce the letter in an acceptable style and form, and dispose of the various copies. Naturally, the details of such job breakdowns will vary from office to office and from one specific type of letter job to another.

The foregoing job breakdown covering proofreading activities is typi-

* A step is an activity that carries the operation forward to the point of completion

† A key point is a factor that will make or break the effectiveness of a step

cal and will serve as a guide in preparing specific breakdowns for all proofreading jobs

This breakdown may serve as a guide for on-the-job teaching and for group instruction. It helps the trainer make certain that all the elements have been covered. Possibly a similar breakdown of the operation of teaching trainees how to write a letter would be in order, or it might be more convenient to insert a third column giving teaching procedure. If there are only a few specific teaching suggestions, they might be indicated in italics (underscored) among the key points.

In every good office or shop there is at least one understudy for every operation performed by any one worker. It might, nevertheless, happen that all those who possess the know-how of the job are out. In this case, the job breakdown serves as a basis for showing those who have marginal experience with the job how to do it, therefore, the breakdown serves not only as a training device, but also as a means of improving office operational procedure. In fact, in well run offices, there is a job breakdown properly worked out for every operation performed. It takes surprisingly little time to carry out this type of study once the procedure is learned. Naturally this file of breakdowns must be reviewed periodically to make certain that it is current.

The course maker may, or may not, follow these steps in this order. The process may be curtailed or amplified, as the case may require. It is more important to follow some organized plan than a given technique.

NONOCCUPATIONAL BUSINESS ANALYSES

Procedures have been thoroughly developed in job studies, but comparatively little has been done along similar lines for general life situations. Certain phases, however, may be easily analyzed. For example, the economic facts, which students should know in order to understand the daily papers, could be determined by noting how frequently economic topics are mentioned.

Newspaper Analysis The newspaper is probably one of the best sources for determining what students should know about world affairs. It has often been said that some newspapers stress morbid and spectacular, rather than normal, happenings. To a certain extent this may be true, but, even so, it is a desirable source for subject matter. Conflicts

and crises, because they offer evidence of a partial failure of social life, receive a great deal of space in the daily papers. In dealing with economics, problems of discord may come first, since they are most interesting to the student. At the same time, it must be remembered that only those periodicals survive which give the public what it wants, and although newspapers mold public opinion, public opinion reacts upon newspapers.

Newspapers may be analyzed for educational purposes in many ways. For example, the number of allusions to any particular topic may be listed, the amount of space devoted to it may be noted, the number of issues containing such allusions may be checked, or the newspapers or periodicals indexed in the *Reader's Guide* or *New York Times Index* may serve as a basis of analysis. Other indexes of possible educational adaptations will be discovered by the resourceful analyst, and the various techniques may be used as checks against each other.

Analyses of Child and Adult Life Other sources of curriculum material are the economic (or business) activities and problems of adults. These can be determined by means of a questionnaire, individual case studies, or personal observation.

Some educators suggest that child life should also be taken into account in developing a course of study, but the extent to which the business activities of boys and girls of high school age differ from those of adults has not been determined. It is usually assumed that a vast gulf separates the two, but high school students may be far more mature in their thinking and aspirations than parents or teachers realize. The curriculum should be so shaped that at least some reference is made to student life, because high school students in many respects behave like adults.

Although studies of this type are useful, they possess the same weaknesses as the job analysis in that they also portray existing, not ideal, conditions. *Children, when they grow up, should not necessarily imitate the habits of their parents.* Too many curricula are designed on the presumption that an accurate analysis of present conditions forms a basis for preparing boys and girls for adult life.

Analysis of the Writings of Frontier Thinkers The best way of ascertaining pending economic changes is to examine the writings of frontier thinkers. Because of the many years these writers have spent in studying the social order, they constitute an authoritative group of prognostica-

tors, and their writings offer valuable aid in the formation of curricula. Course-of-study makers must be certain, however, that these writers are not mere purveyors of panaceas or propagandists for some "ism," shrewdly disguising their work as objective thinking.

HOW OBJECTIVE CAN COURSE MAKERS BE?

Much further research must be done in order to determine objectively the materials used for business subjects. Isolated studies are available, but they give only a general indication of desirable subject matter.

The general scope and purpose of education will probably always rest on a subjective basis. Granting this, a certain degree of objectivity can be developed in organizing the details. The social business studies in particular should be planned fundamentally, not on existing conditions but on desirable future changes. For this reason, subject matter in this area must be based on the writings of frontier thinkers, whereas the specific facts illustrating present trends may be obtained from current newspapers.

The more objective the selection of subject matter, the more significant the curriculum materials will be. That is almost axiomatic. Curriculum materials should be chosen only after careful study.

TEXTBOOK SELECTION IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

In America the teacher depends to a great extent on textbooks for guidance in giving courses. With an adequate textbook, the average teacher can more easily execute his task. Without it, he is likely to flounder for a long time before he can get his bearings. The textbook is, for all practical purposes, the course-of-study in most American schools. It, therefore, should be organized upon sound procedures for making courses of study.

The supervisor may give partial help by supplying the teacher with a course of study, with reference material, or with an evaluation of existing books on the subject.

Textbooks should not be selected on the basis of superficial examination. A number of books should be read carefully in order to discover the one that fulfills the aims of the course most exactly. The problem material included in the texts should offer rich experience in the devel-

opment of skills and attitudes. The illustrations should catch and hold the interest of students and should be vitally related to the text.

Finally, the style of the book should receive consideration. Unless the students can understand the vocabulary, the book is reduced in value, for the inability of students to grasp new terminology and relate it to the known vocabulary is a frequent cause of failure in high school.

Teachers should examine score cards and other devices for measuring vocabularies of books. Where good texts on a subject are not available, teachers should facilitate their production, for effort spent on improving courses of study and teaching methods will be fruitless unless good textbooks make the course of study functional for the classroom teacher.

FACTORS IN CURRICULUM MAKING

It must be recognized that the community situation is not ideal. The human element must be considered in any social undertaking. People have preconceived points of view that they insist on maintaining. They object to some proposals just because they are made by certain persons, or if approached in a manner that they consider objectionable, they set up barriers to acceptance regardless of merit.

Thus it can be seen that curriculum construction requires not only a technique, but also, like all human processes, considerable ability of the curriculum maker to deal with people. Diplomacy is a basic requisite to program improvement in the school, and patience is just as much a virtue in this case as it is in teaching. Yet too much shrewdness is also likely to be dangerous, for it will be labeled as duplicity.

It must be realized, however, that the schools can attain many projected goals only in a better social order. What are some of the factors that must be considered in curriculum construction? The list that follows is by no means complete, and it should serve only as a basis for further study. The factors listed will suggest others to the reader.

FACTORS IN CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

1. Special institutional objectives must be considered.
2. The business and community situation in which the school is located is a basic element in program planning.

- 3 Pupil groups need certain kinds of business education consistent with the objectives of the school
- 4 Selection of students for courses is an important factor
- 5 Other educational agencies must be considered
- 6 Subjects offered in other departments that may realize some or all of the special aims of certain business subjects must be considered
- 7 A major factor in organizing teaching materials in business education is the available teaching material
- 8 Qualified teachers are a basic factor in curriculum construction
- 9 The availability of libraries, machines, and other equipment must be considered in organizing curricula
- 10 Minimum time required for teaching each subject is basic
- 11 The enlistment of the community to support the expense of a proposed curriculum is desirable
- 12 State departments frequently set up requirements and regulations
- 13 Unless the attitudes of various school officers toward business education as a whole and certain business subjects in particular are considered, there are likely to be serious flaws in the revision of a program of studies
- 14 Local practices and vested interests must be kept in mind
- 15 During the last twenty five years, certain trends have been taking place within business, education, and business education of which the curriculum maker should be mindful
- 16 The age of the student influences his ability and willingness to learn and his capacity to use the learning
- 17 How many students of each sex should study business?
- 18 The kind of general education students have had will, in part, determine the effectiveness of the business program
- 19 The factor of student intelligence is closely connected with the general education of a student.
- 20 The size of the school must be taken into account.

For example, if the teachers are not equipped to present the courses adequately, they may develop an antagonistic attitude toward their work. In this event, the revised curriculum may not only fail, but may also prove less adequate than the previous program.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 Differentiate between course, curriculum, program of study, and core
2. What two methods of course making can be used? Why are both of value? What combination of these procedures may be developed?

3 Why is a certain amount of subjectivity inevitable in the development of a course of study?

4 Why do some curriculum makers prefer the term "scope and sequence" or "program and resource units" to the term "course of study"?

5 Evaluate the steps in converting the job analysis into a course of study as given here

6 What are the limitations of job and social life analyses?

7. Study Charters and Whitley's analysis and evaluate it: (a) as a job analysis, (b) as a basis for making a course of study

8. Compare some courses of study or textbook manuals in a business subject according to the bases for evaluation given in this chapter

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CHAPTER XVII

The Business Program in the High School

AN OUTSTANDING CHARACTERISTIC of public secondary school education is its remarkable growth. In 1900, only about one-half million pupils attended high schools, while in 1960 almost ten million students were enrolled in grade nine to twelve—the traditional high school period. At present, three-quarters of all persons between the ages of fourteen and seventeen inclusive are in high school (in many communities almost 95 per cent) while in 1900 there were about 10 per cent. This shows that the American public is increasingly interested in maintaining high schools, and it is also an indication of the fact that boys and girls up to their eighteenth birthday are not particularly wanted in industry or in business. To some extent the high schools have changed their courses, methods, and organizational setup to meet the needs and interests of a vastly larger proportion of boys and girls.

In the high schools there has been a significant development in the programs of health education, homemaking, industrial subjects, business education, and in the social sciences. Much thought has been given to meeting the needs of the changed high school population. In 1900 only the economically and intellectually elite went to high school, whereas now only the most unfortunate may be deprived of a high school education. In spite of these significant changes, the high school remains fundamentally similar to the type of institution it was in 1900.

Courses are still given to prepare students for white-collar, socially desirable occupations or for upper middleclass social life. Much of the adjustment has been on the level of theory and less on the level of actual practice. Thus, in Pennsylvania, a progressive state, only 50 per cent of those who complete the eighth grade graduate from high school.

These statements do not belittle the desirability of the changes made. They simply imply that far more should be done to reduce the excessive lag of the secondary school program in meeting the actual social and job needs of the students who now attend these schools. Teachers probably never will, and probably should not, eliminate the traditional aim of the high school—competent scholarship. They must, however, increase the emphasis upon the development of desirable attitudes, skills, appreciations, knowledges, and ideals. The original purpose of the school was to achieve these objectives. Formal scholarship is primarily a formalization of the learnings designed to attain these objectives. This formalization no longer meets the needs of current life activities of students. Learning, that is true scholarship, must constantly be adapted to developing the varied competencies needed for better living in a constantly changing environment.

During the depression of the 1930's, and since then, much effort has been devoted to adjusting the programs of the secondary schools to the new types of students. While traditional subject matter was by no means eliminated, new types of courses were developed, and the traditional subject matter was simplified. Most teachers and administrators decided that the pupils who were coming to school could not cope with the more abstract types of subject matter. They felt that no stigma should be placed upon those who were recognized as being less able to deal with the exacting nature of the traditional subject matter. Many thought it dangerous to make the subject matter of the school so simple that anyone could cope with it. Nevertheless, there was a tendency for this trend toward simplification and even oversimplification to develop at the expense of more exact types of learning.

In recent years, and especially with the advent of Sputnik I in 1957, there has been a strong and almost violent reaction to the oversimplification of the secondary school program. As a consequence, there is a strong movement back toward the traditional subjects inspired by Conant and others. Some of these traditionalists have become hysterical in their urgent demands that the secondary-school programs be limited

to the former traditional subjects which they now tend to call "solids." Others, like Conant, demand that a program in the secondary school, made up entirely of solids, be given only to the upper 15 per cent. According to Conant, the upper 15 per cent of the students would be required to take the following subjects: English 4 units, social studies 4 units, science 3 units, mathematics 3 units, foreign language 3 units. These elite students, therefore, could take no business subjects unless they took them during their study period or other free time.

In practice, the suggestion makes little change in the program of business education, because few, if any, of these students usually take business subjects anyway. At the most, a few of them take typing for a semester or two, and, occasionally, an individual may take a course like business law to fill in for the total graduation requirement. For the 85 per cent of the remaining students, the requirements are generally conceived to be something like the following: English 4 units, social studies 4 units, science 1 or 2 units, mathematics 1 or 2 units. Thus, the usual student would take anywhere from 10 to 12 academic subjects, leaving somewhere between 4 to 6 units free. In practice, however, the number of subjects made available as electives in nonacademic subjects would tend to be fewer for all but the students of the least academic ability.

The current trend of thinking is that anyone who has the capacity to do college work of any nature should not only be permitted, but encouraged, and even, if possible, compelled to meet college entrance requirements. Since most collegiate institutions are growing rapidly in enrollment, and since many of them, particularly those that have outstanding recognition, must find some means of reducing their freshmen classes to a number with which they can cope, the tendency is for all colleges that can afford to do so to require an increasing number of academic units on the secondary-school level. The elite colleges now tend to require the complete gamut of courses suggested by Conant for the upper 15 per cent. An increasing number of colleges labeled as less elite are setting up standards as close to these as possible, while still maintaining their enrollments.

Since the enrollment in colleges is expected to increase substantially in the 1960's, it is likely that most, if not almost all, colleges will increase the number of academic units required for entrance to such an extent that at best 3 or 4 units, and in many cases not more than 1 or 2 units of business subjects and other courses labeled as nonacademic can

be offered To the extent to which this development takes place, the traditional type of business education subject matter will therefore be relegated to those students whom the guidance counselors clearly see as being of nonacademic caliber

This trend requires a serious reconsideration of the program of business education as it is offered in the secondary school The situation might develop haphazardly, resulting in the elimination of business education in many high schools except for typing and courses adjusted to those who are clearly nonacademic, or definite plans might be made to reorganize the business-education program so as to create time to achieve the minimum requirements for initial success in office and store jobs, while permitting those who are considered or who consider themselves college material to meet college entrance requirements

COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS AND BUSINESS EDUCATION

In theory, the college should accept any program of instruction offered in the secondary school that makes it possible for the student to continue his learning on a more advanced level in college For many years, progressive educators have advocated this point of view¹ They have insisted that the college has no right to dictate to the secondary school what it should teach, merely because the collegiate school insists upon having certain types of subject matter as a prerequisite For many years, there was some evidence that this demand on the part of progressive educators was being met In the period immediately after World War II when the collegiate needs of veterans were being satisfied, and as college enrollments decreased because of the lower birthrates in the 1930's the colleges seemed more and more willing to accept high school graduation with adequate standing in class as a basis for college entrance Since the advent of Sputnik, however, and the renewed demand for high standards, accentuated by the rapid increase in enrollment in college that has already developed and is expected to become heavier in the 1960's, colleges are reversing their point of view and are again demanding certain specified subject matter for college entrance

Collegiate schools have also attempted to give placement by means of

¹ See *Eight Year Study*

intelligence tests, emotional stability tests, and the like. These are difficult to give individually and are recognized as being quite unreliable when given en masse. The net result is that the college admission officers have taken the line of least resistance by requiring the academic subjects usually taken by the most able high school students. Because the requirements in these subjects are stiff, only the more able people take the courses, and the standards can be high. Thus, the college admission officers are able to reduce the amount of calculating they need to do in order to select their students. By requiring as many academic subjects as possible and still get the necessary enrollment, the college admission officers are able to select with little effort the types of students who are most able in terms of the enrollment possibilities of the schools.

The net results of such a procedure is again to put impedimenta in the way of students who wish to take business and other nonacademic subjects and still meet college entrance requirements. The student himself, his parents, and his guidance counselor are apt to play safe and select academic subjects that will surely meet college entrance requirements, if it should be possible to go to college. If the student does not go to college, these courses have considerable recognition in the business community. Moreover, because of increased diversification in offices, with the resulting uncertainty whether a highly specialized skill can be used on the job, many businesses are quite satisfied with a student who has had an academic program in high school with few or no business subjects. Business is becoming increasingly willing to give specialized on the job training when and where necessary.

BUSINESS EDUCATION FOR THE USUAL STUDENT AND FOR THE NONACADEMIC

It is time to recognize the need for a school program for those students who cannot cope with the more abstract type of subject matter. No stigma of failure should be placed upon those who are recognized as being incompetent to deal with abstract types of learning. On the other hand, it would be equally dangerous to make subject matter so simple that anyone could master it. Unfortunately, there is a tendency for just this sort of thing to happen.

Simplifying mathematics, Latin, bookkeeping, and the other old-line subjects, so that they are easier to learn, is not always a wise solution

General Latin, applied physics, mathematics, and socialized bookkeeping soon are labeled by the students and teachers alike as 'dumbbell' Latin, mathematics, and bookkeeping. If many less able students are placed in the same classes with intellectual students, neither benefit, for the teacher must give some attention to the less able, and consequently the more able learn the art of getting along with less effort, while the less able constantly find it difficult to keep up with the group. Consequently, neither group learns adequately. For this reason, a new type of subject matter must be created. Much of it can be developed from the more simple aspects of the old line subjects, but the material must be organized in an entirely different manner. It is for this reason that subjects like consumer education, shopwork, social studies, junior business training, gardening, and innumerable other subjects have been created. Business education contains a considerable body of subject matter from which such courses can be developed.

BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL

The first genuine American high school was organized at Boston in 1821 under the name of English Classical School for Boys. A course in bookkeeping was included in its curriculum. Massachusetts, in 1827, provided by law for a single-entry bookkeeping course in the secondary school. In 1829, New York recognized bookkeeping as a part of the secondary-school program. These beginnings, however, did not greatly influence the later development of business education in the secondary school.

The public evidently did not see the need for teaching shorthand or bookkeeping in the early decades of the nineteenth century, consequently, little effort was made to give extensive training in the public high schools. In the post Civil War period, as a result of expanding business, the demand for trained bookkeepers and stenographers grew tremendously and with it the private business school. Parents then began to realize the need for business training and wondered why it was necessary for them to send their boys and girls to private schools when public schools were available. Business education then became a major influence in the secondary school and was modeled closely after that of the private school.

It is quite evident that the curriculum pattern of the private business

school was taken over *in toto* in the public school, and that most of the early teachers received all, or nearly all, their training in the private business school. As late as 1890 the famous Committee of Ten gave subordinate attention to commercial courses, it was not until 1893 that the first regularly licensed teacher of commercial subjects was appointed in the City of New York. Until 1910 it was not unusual for a cosmopolitan high school to have no commercial department. Even now, many thousands of very small high schools give no consideration to business education.

When business instruction proved successful in the secondary school, courses began to expand rapidly. In fact, so great was the demand for commercial workers that there was ample room for both private and public business schools, especially with the increase of female stenographers, who used employment merely as a stopgap until marriage. This meant that the average occupational life of the stenographic worker was of short duration, with the result that there was a constant need for replacement. About the time of World War I, enrollment in business subjects in the public high school was mounting at an unbelievably rapid rate.

TYPES OF BUSINESS PROGRAMS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The program of business education in the secondary school has undergone significant developments. In 1901, the National Education Association appointed a committee on commercial education. This committee (The Committee of Nine), in a report² published in 1903, recommended a four-year course in place of the typical three-year curriculum previously offered and suggested that separate commercial high schools be organized, although it admitted the probability that only large cities could afford to do so.

It also advocated that a large number of academic subjects be included in the commercial high school curriculum. The latter suggestion harmonized with the highly academic character of the secondary school of that period.

² "Commercial Education in High School." State Department of Education Bulletin. Albany, New York, *Bulletin* 23, 1903. See also National Education Association *Addresses and Proceedings*. Washington, D. C., 1904.

The Committee of Nine proposed the following curriculum

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Periods a Week</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Periods a Week</i>
English	4	Rhetoric and composition (1 term)	3
Modern language	5	Physics or chemistry	5
Algebra	5	American history (1 term)	5
Bookkeeping	3	Bookkeeping and office practice (1 term)	5
Penmanship	2 or 3	Plane geometry (1 term)	5
Drawing (only 1 term)	3	Commercial law (1 term)	5
General history (only 1 term)	4	Political economy (1 term)	4
<i>Second Year</i>		<i>Fourth Year</i>	
History of English literature and correspondence	3	English literature	5
Modern language (continued)	5	History of commerce (1 term)	5
History of local industry and commercial geography	5	Civil government (1 term)	5
Commercial arithmetic (1 term only)	5	Three 5 period a week subjects each term such as	
European history (1 term only)	5	Language	
Bookkeeping (1 term)	5	Shorthand and typewriting	
Typewriting (1 term)	5	Physics or chemistry	
		Banking and finance	
		Solid geometry	
		Mechanical drawing	
		Accounting	
		Advanced commercial arithmetic	
		Advertising	
		Office work for stenographers	

This program, it can be seen, is not very different from the possible offering of modern business subjects in a large metropolitan high school even today. One criticism of it would be that it scheduled too many courses for less than five periods a week and too many one term subjects. Among other things, such a program increases scheduling difficulties. The program was severely criticized for this very reason at the 1904 meeting of the National Education Association Department of Business Education.

In 1915, the National Education Association formulated a program

of commercial education for the high school. This program probably gave undue emphasis to technical work at the expense of a broad foundation. In 1919, the National Education Association offered a third

TABLE 14 *The Federal Board for Vocational Education
Proposal of 1919*

<i>Seventh Year</i>	<i>Periods a Week</i>	<i>Tenth Year</i>	<i>Periods a Week</i>
English	5	English	5
Geography	5	Commercial geography	5
Commercial history	5	Commercial II (intermediate	
Arithmetic	4	bookkeeping and business	
Manual training or		practice)	5
household arts	4	Shorthand	5
Physical training and hygiene	3	Foreign language	5
		History	5
		Typewriting	5
		Elective	5
<i>Eighth Year</i>		<i>Eleventh Year</i>	
English	5	English	7
Business arithmetic combined		Physics or chemistry	7
with business writing	5	Specializations *	
Commercial geography	5	General business, account-	
Typewriting	5	ing	
First lessons in business	5	Office practice	3
Manual training or		Advanced bookkeeping	5
domestic arts	4	Electives to fill	
History and citizenship	3	Stenographic	
Physical training	2	Shorthand	5
		Typewriting	5
<i>Ninth Year</i>		Office practice	3
English	5	Electives to fill	
Commercial mathematics	5	Retail selling	
Typewriting	5	Salesmanship, merchan-	
Science	5	dise	5
Commercial I (including ele-		Electives to fill	
mentary bookkeeping, busi-		Foreign trade	
ness practice and business		Document techniques	5
writing)	10	Electives to fill	
Physical training	2		

* Appropriate office or store experience required in each specialization.

<i>Twelfth Year</i>	<i>Periods a Week</i>	<i>Twelfth Year</i>	<i>Periods a Week</i>
Commercial English	5	Commercial law (1 term)	5
Adv American history and civics	5	Retail selling	
Specializations *		Salesmanship and store organization	5
General business, accounting		Store practice	5
Accounting (2 terms)	5	Store mathematics	5
Advertising and salesmanship (2 terms)	5	Foreign trade and shipping	
Business organization (2 terms)	5	Advertising and salesmanship (1 term)	5
Commercial law (1 term)	5	Business organization and management (1 term)	5
Economics (1 term)	5	Foreign trade sales practice	5
Stenographic		Foreign language (if begun earlier)	5
Secretarial practice (1 term)	5		
Economics (1 term)	5		

* Appropriate office or store experience required in each specialization

series of suggestions, published by the United States Bureau of Education as Bulletin 55, 1919. This emphasized the need for specific job objectives and took cognizance of the fact that the commercial program must be expanded to develop more than mere stenographic and bookkeeping ability. About the same time, the newly organized Federal Board for Vocational Education published a related report, *Bulletin 34, 1919*, which provided for junior high school commercial work and for general office and store training.

Of these programs, the Federal Board for Vocational Education plan, worked out in large measure by Frederick G. Nichols, as seen in Table 14 (page 268), was possibly the most significant in its influence.

This program emphasizes the unit plan of specialization. The tendency to give considerable specialization early in the program and to place technical training near the end has been discarded in most schools. Nevertheless, this plan had considerable influence in its day and helped

to develop the idea of specialization—that only those subjects which a person is very likely to use should be required. It was a strong influence toward the elimination of the one-sequence commercial curriculum in urban high schools.

Suggested curricula in commercial education after 1919 tended to consider traditional subject matter in terms of the newer objectives. Some of these programs will be analyzed briefly later in this book. Business education is now a major phase of the American high school, which is now, and probably will continue to be for some time, the primary institution for training office personnel.

An increasing number of schools have recently organized their business subjects into one or more curriculum patterns, but it is probable that the majority of students take commercial work on an elective basis, or in a two- or three year sequence in a general curriculum.

TYPES OF SUBJECTS OFFERED

In Chapter II, estimates were given for enrollments in business subjects. Table 15 presents the number of schools offering various business subjects.

Schools offering only the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades were excluded in order to give a uniform picture. Subjects found in less than five cases were not listed.

These schools were located in Colorado, Ohio, North Carolina, and New Jersey in 1958 and 1959. Only schools in communities with a population of over 3,000 (1950 Census) were included so as to indicate the typical situation, rather than small, high schools. No attempt was made to classify the subjects offered by grades because students from almost all grades are generally permitted to take subjects for which there is no prerequisite. Only ninth grade students generally take introduction to business. Students start shorthand, typing, and bookkeeping in every grade, including the twelfth. There seems to be no clear distinction between secretarial, office, and clerical training. The terms are often used for identical courses, and often the courses are taught simultaneously. Economic geography is usually taken by tenth grade students, arithmetic by ninth- and tenth grade students, and the other social business subjects by eleventh- and twelfth-grade students. Lists compiled by

TABLE 15 *Business Subjects Offered in 100 Four-Year High Schools
(In Communities with Over 3 000 Population)*

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Number of Schools in Which Taught</i>
Record keeping	12
Bookkeeping—1st year	89
2nd year	10
Typewriting —1st year	100
2nd year	48
Shorthand —1st year	90
2nd year	48
Secretarial practice	40
Office practice	37
Clerical practice	18
Salesmanship (retailing)	33
Co-operative store and office training	17
Advertising	7
Selling and advertising	7
Marketing	1
Introduction to business	59
Business arithmetic	48
Business law	37
Business English	12
Consumer education	36
Economic geography	11
Business organization	8
Economics	10

others show substantially the same variety and frequency of courses, though, of course, they vary in detail

TREND IN HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

During and immediately after World War II, there was a sharp increase in birth rate. Thus, beginning about 1948 a sharp increase developed in the enrollment in the first grades of the elementary school. This increase in enrollment reached its height in new elementary school pupils around 1954 and will stay at a plateau for several years thereafter. There is no evidence that more than a slight decrease will take place in the immediate future.

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THE SELECTION OF STUDENTS

Ideally, the school should refuse to admit more than a reasonable number of students to specialized training if it could justify such refusal on the basis of selecting intelligently those students who will succeed. The present means of prognosis, however, are not sufficiently exact to permit such selection to be made dogmatically. Moreover, some students take this type of work for its nonvocational value, and if students are not permitted to take such specialized training, their only other choice is academic work of remote value.

Sometimes, the public school can give training that is useful on the job, but the cost is so high for each pupil that it means an inroad on the opportunities for general educational training, which is more important. Therefore, when the cost of specific job training greatly exceeds that of general common school training, that type ordinarily should not be given in the school. It might be advisable to encourage the pupil to go to a private institution for this training and to reimburse the private school to the extent that the secondary school training would cost.

HIGHLY DIFFERENTIATED PROGRAMS NO LONGER JUSTIFIED

When the high school program first took form, it was a school for the select—for the intellectually and financially superior. Now the high school enrollment encompasses all segments of the secondary-age school population. In previous generations the high school catered to various types—those who went to college, those who went to normal schools, those who went into business, and those whom mother wanted out of the house a few hours a day but did not want to send to work. The situation is changed. Now almost all go to high school, simply because the community requires such attendance and because jobs are usually not available for those of high school age. Sharp differentiations in terms of objectives are no longer feasible. Those who plan to go to college often end up in business, many who plan to go into offices end up in a liberal arts college. Many beginning jobs in business and in industry require little or no specific training. Willingness to work is so much more important that specific job training is often brushed aside. Hence the increasing demand for the extension upward into the high school years of the undifferentiated or core-curriculum concept. Nevertheless,

specific office training is still vital for some and desirable for many. This has been made clear in Chapter IX and will be developed in detail in later chapters.

A COMMON CORE PROGRAM

Until around 1958, most curriculum makers felt that it was desirable to develop a core program of instruction in the secondary schools similar to that of the elementary schools. Inasmuch as the secondary school has now become an integral phase of the common school, its program was to emphasize the essentials necessary for all people. Naturally, the method of procedure in a secondary school was to be considerably different. There was, moreover, greater opportunity for differentiation in ability to learn.

Basic work in the high school core was to include at least the following learnings:

- 1 Remedial learning to bring deficiencies in elementary school work up to an adequate standard
- 2 English instruction including
 - a Reading skill
 - b Writing skill
 - c Speaking skill
 - d Listening skill
 - e Literary appreciation
- 3 Science instruction, biological and physical
- 4 History of the American people, in terms of their world relationship
- 5 Integrated mathematics based on an adequate standard of elementary school achievement
- 6 Appreciation (literature and music for example)
- 7 Health
- 8 Household and practical arts with some differentiation for boys and girls, but far less than now prevails

In addition, a limited amount of elective work was to be made available. Differentiation was to be based on aptitude and interest and provided for within each core area rather than by different courses. This presupposed that colleges would change their entrance requirements to fit this type of secondary-school program and no longer insist upon particular traditional subjects. The Eight-Year Study demonstrated that type of subject matter taken in high school did not influence success in college.

Sputnik and its consequences practically forced curriculum makers to throw this concept of the core curriculum out of the window. Instead the core for all students goes back to the traditional subjects: English, mathematics, science, social studies, and foreign language offered, if possible, for four years each. It is recognized that this program is not within the interest and ability range of most students, therefore it is planned primarily for the elite who in 1960 were, tacitly at least, conceived to be the most important. The less able were to take as much of this core of "solids" as they could master. It will probably be found that a rigid program of academics does not even meet the needs of all those of academic ability. Consequently, some compromise between the traditional program and the complete restatement conceived by curriculum planners of the '50s will be the outcome. For the most able, the core will be quite traditional, for the nonacademic, the core will tend to be closer to the program presented above.

BUSINESS EDUCATION AND THE CORE

There is great concern among teachers of business subjects as to the part that business education should play in the organization of the core program. Some business educators quite frankly feel that those phases of business learning that are important for all should be relegated to the core curriculum and no longer be the special concern of business educators. Others feel that, even though it is desirable for many aspects of business education to become a part of a core curriculum, those aspects of the core curriculum that are concerned with business education should still be taught by business teachers. Teachers of business subjects who have this point of view are considered to be visionary by those who are completely reconciled and even anxious to have business education of value to all students become a part of the core-curriculum program.

Many think it highly desirable for teachers of business education to come to as much agreement as possible about the relationship of business education, insofar as it concerns all students, to the core curriculum. It is altogether probable that if it is considered desirable for business education to be taught by business teachers, as little of business education as possible should become a part of the core curriculum. On the other hand, if business educators are concerned only with good general business education for all students, regardless of who does it and how

it is done, they may be quite willing to let business education for all become integrated into the core curriculum

TERMINAL COURSES IN THE HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

It would be ideal if every student, at whatever level he graduates from school, could be given some specific occupational training just prior to the time he is ready to leave, or at least somewhere along the line of school training sufficiently close to the job transfer so as not to result in too great a loss of learning. Actually, for the great majority of occupations into which high school and even college graduates enter, no specific type of job training is necessary or possible. For most of these students, therefore, terminal programs are not needed, particularly since they tend to shift people in greater numbers into the few occupations for which specific job training is possible and thus divert them from the many opportunities in other types of occupational endeavors for which specific job training is not necessary. It is probable, all things being equal, that the best type of all-round job training that can be given in the school is the best form of general education possible.

The junior college, as a form of secondary school, has been widely heralded as a type of institution in the school program that will give this type of specific vocational training. Actually, the junior college has not been altogether successful in achieving this objective. The types of terminal courses offered are not different from those of other school institutions, and in the great majority of cases, the best service they can render is some form of terminal general, rather than terminal job, training. The junior college as an institution separate from the high school is considered in detail in Chapter XXVII.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

As has been pointed out before, the exact status of vocational training in the secondary school is still a moot question. Most students oppose specialized and opportunistic vocational training. They feel that the high school should not encourage boys and girls who have had no successful vocational experience to feel that they can be made skilled workers. Many suggestions have been given for making more specific job training

available in post-collegiate institutions, like the junior college and similar schools

Only as more useful programs of instruction are made available in the high school can some of the specific vocational training for business be delegated to the thirteenth and fourteenth year. Teachers must then make certain, however, that those students who do not go on to a thirteenth year will not graduate from high school without having had at least the opportunity to get some form of specific job training. The problem, therefore, is not one of eliminating vocational job training in the high school but one of providing better facilities.

THE COMBINATION BUSINESS CURRICULUM

In a surprisingly large number of schools, there is still only one business curriculum. This curriculum, which may be appropriately called a "combination business curriculum," includes shorthand, bookkeeping, typing, and related subjects. A typical curriculum of this kind appears below.

A Combination Business Curriculum

(One unit equals five periods of instruction a week for one school year)

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>Units</i>
Academic subjects	
English	4
General science	1
Civics	1
American history	1
General business subjects	
Bookkeeping	2
Shorthand	2
Typing	1
Elementary business	$\frac{1}{2}$
Business law or economic geography	$\frac{1}{2}$
Office practice	$\frac{1}{2}$
Salesmanship or economics	$\frac{1}{2}$
Minor subjects	
Health, music, arts	2
Electives	1
Units required for graduation	<hr/> 17

Little can be said in favor of this type, which is usually offered in smaller communities where the student's work must be planned rather exactly. When there are only one or two business teachers, all subjects should not be offered every term, nor every year. Even with these restrictions, teachers must sometimes carry seven or eight subjects a day.

The claim is frequently made that, by taking this type of program, students are trained for both stenographic and bookkeeping positions, thereby doubling their employment opportunities. The benefit obtained, if any, hardly justifies the sacrifice of more basic instruction.

It has been said also that many small communities still offer combination stenographic-bookkeeping positions. How many? How much bookkeeping is done by these workers? Should all students take business subjects because an occasional student may obtain a combination job?

Some teachers favor the combination type of program because it draws more students to the business department. Needless to say, competition between departments in the secondary school is undesirable.

CURRICULA OR SEQUENCES

Business instruction in the high school has been handled in two ways, both of which may often be found in one school. These procedures are

1. Curricula are offered in stenography, bookkeeping, general clerical work, and merchandising, with prerequisites for each. For example, the bookkeeping curriculum may include three years of English, one year of business English, one year of introduction to business, two years of bookkeeping, one year of office practice, a year of commercial arithmetic, two years of social studies, one year of science, a year of typing with half credit, and a varied number of minor subjects, such as health education, music, and art. Three or four electives may be permitted. The prospective bookkeeper, therefore, takes a well-defined program that may earn a certificate of proficiency. Frequently, special requirements for permission to take this curriculum are established, such as a certain proficiency in arithmetic, penmanship, or English.

2. A general curriculum with a minimum of required subjects is set up. The latter may include English (four years), social studies (two years), science (one year), mathematics (one year). In addition, the student may be required to take several sequences, such as three years of one subject and two years of two other subjects. If the student is interested in bookkeeping, his major sequence may be a year of introduction to business and two years

TABLE 16A. *Munneapolis (Minn.) Business Education
Recommended Curricula 1958*

<i>Office Skills</i>	<i>Stenographic Skills</i>	<i>Calculator Skills</i>
10th Grade		
Basic business 1, 2—2 cr	Type 1, 2—2 cr *Type 2A—1 cr Basic business 1, 2—2 cr	Basic business 1, 2—2 cr
11th Grade		
Type 1, 2—2 cr *Type 2A—1 cr Bookkeeping 1, 2—2 cr	Shorthand 1, 2—2 cr Bookkeeping 1, 2—2 cr	Type 1, 2—2 cr *Type 2A—1 cr Bookkeeping 1, 2—2 cr
12th Grade		
Office skills 1, 2—2 cr †Advanced business principles 1, 2—2 cr Business English 1, 2—2 cr	†Advanced shorthand 3, 4—2 cr †Senior shorthand 1, 2—2 cr Stenographic skills 1, 2—2 cr ‡Advanced business principles 1, 2—2 cr Business English 1, 2—2 cr	§Calculator skills 1, 2—2 cr Office skills 1, 2—2 cr ‡Advanced business principles 1, 2—2 cr Business English 1, 2—2 cr

Recommendation

Students choosing any of these curricula should consider additional learning experiences in speech, mathematics, and psychology.

Note

* Open only to those students with A or B grade in Junior High School Typewriting.

† Stenographic skills must be taken with these courses.

‡ May be taken for 1 or 2 semesters. 1st semester—Business law. 2nd semester—Business organization and management.

§ Office skills must be taken with this course.

of bookkeeping, has minor sequence, a year of office practice and a year of commercial arithmetic. A second sequence may be taken in another field—perhaps in commerce. For example, the second minor may be a combination of shorthand and typing. A considerable amount of guidance is needed in administering this type of program.

VIRTUES AND DEFECTS OF SINGLE BUSINESS CURRICULUM PATTERN

No curriculum can set down precisely the ability and knowledge required by a given occupation. Some business curricula are organized for the convenience of teachers and administrators rather than that of students. It often seems that courses are taught because teachers like them, rather than because they are significant for the students.

TABLE 16B. *Minneapolis (Minn) Part-Time Occupational Training Program 1958*
Personal Use Courses

Retail	Office		
	Shorthand	Non Shorthand	
10th Grade Varies with individual	Type 1, 2—2 cr Basic business 1, 2—2 cr	Type 1, 2—2 cr Basic business 1, 2—2 cr	Basic business 1, 2—2 cr
11th Grade Varies with individual	Shorthand 1, 2—2 cr Bookkeeping 1, 2—2 cr	Adv Bus principles 1, 2—2 cr Bookkeeping 1 2—2 cr	Bookkeeping 1, 2—2 cr
12th Grade Retailing 1, 2—2 cr Business English 1, 2—2 cr †Occup relations 1, 2—2 cr †Work experience 1, 2—2 cr	Shorthand 3 4—2 cr *Stenographic skills 1 2—2 cr Business English 1, 2—2 cr †Occup relations 1, 2—2 cr †Work experience 1, 2—2 cr	Office skills 1, 2—2 cr Business English 1 2—2 cr †Occup relations 1, 2—2 cr †Work experience 1 2—2 cr	Adv bus principles 1, 2—2 cr Business English 1 2—2 cr Senior typing 1—1 cr

* Stenographic skills is recommended if work hours permit

† Required of all students enrolling in Part Time Occupational Training Program as Social Studies equivalent

† School supervised paid job

As explained previously, both the specialized and the general type of business training are available in some schools. Qualified students may take the special curriculum, others may elect business courses as majors or minors in a general, or even academic, curriculum. In some schools, general or academic students may have the same program as business students. One cannot dogmatize about the virtues and defects of these curricula.

In the small school, where guidance is possible, the election of business subjects for minors and majors may be satisfactory, because it permits the student to adapt his work to his own needs. Since no teacher can be certain that any given program will fit a large body of students, this procedure has considerable merit.

TABLE 16A *Minneapolis (Minn.) Business Education
Recommended Curricula 1958*

<i>Office Skills</i>	<i>Stenographic Skills</i>	<i>Calculator Skills</i>
10th Grade		
Basic business 1, 2—2 cr	Type 1, 2—2 cr. *Type 2 1—1 cr Basic business 1, 2—2 cr	Basic business 1, 2—2 cr
11th Grade		
Type 1 2—2 cr *Type 2 1—1 cr		Type 1 2—2 cr *Type 2 1—1 cr
Bookkeeping 1 2—2 cr	Shorthand 1, 2—2 cr Bookkeeping 1 2—2 cr	Bookkeeping 1, 2—2 cr
12th Grade		
	† Advanced shorthand 3, 4—2 cr † Senior shorthand 1, 2— 2 cr	
Office skills 1, 2—2 cr ‡ Advanced business principles 1 2—2 cr Business English 1, 2—2 cr	Stenographic skills 1 2—2 cr ‡ Advanced business principles 1 2—2 cr Business English 1, 2—2 cr	§ Calculator skills 1, 2—2 cr Office skills 1, 2—2 cr ‡ Advanced business principles 1, 2—2 cr Business English 1, 2—2 cr

Recommendation

Students choosing any of these curricula should consider additional learning experiences in speech mathematics and psychology

Note

* Open only to those students with A or B grade in Junior High School Typewriting

† Stenographic skills must be taken with these courses

‡ May be taken for 1 or 2 semesters 1st semester—Business law 2nd semester—Business organization and management

§ Office skills must be taken with this course

of bookkeeping his minor sequence, a year of office practice and a year of commercial arithmetic. A second sequence may be taken in another field—perhaps in commerce. For example, the second minor may be a combination of shorthand and typing. A considerable amount of guidance is needed in administering this type of program.

VIRTUES AND DEFECTS OF SINGLE BUSINESS CURRICULUM PATTERN

No curriculum can set down precisely the ability and knowledge required by a given occupation. Some business curricula are organized for the convenience of teachers and administrators rather than that of students. It often seems that courses are taught because teachers like them, rather than because they are significant for the students.

TABLE 16B *Minneapolis (Minn.) Part Time Occupational Training Program 1958*
Personal Use Courses

<i>Retail</i>	<i>Office</i>		
	<i>Shorthand</i>	<i>Non Shorthand</i>	
10th Grade Varies with individual	Type 1 2 2 cr Basic business 1 2—2 cr	Type 1 2—2 cr Basic business 1 2—2 cr	Basic business 1 2—2 cr
11th Grade Varies with individual	Shorthand 1 2—2 cr Bookkeeping 1 2—2 cr	Adv Bus principles 1 2—2 cr Bookkeeping 1 2—2 cr	Bookkeeping 1 2—2 cr
12th Grade Retailing 1 2—2 cr Business English 1 2—2 cr †Occup relations 1 2—2 cr †Work experience 1 2—2 cr	Shorthand 3 4—2 cr *Stenographic skills 1 2—2 cr Business English 1 2—2 cr †Occup relations 1 2—2 cr †Work experience 1 2—2 cr	Office skills 1 2—2 cr Business English 1 2—2 cr †Occup relations 1 2—2 cr †Work experience 1 2—2 cr	Adv bus principles 1 2—2 cr Business English 1 2—2 cr Senior typing 1—1 cr

* Stenographic skills is recommended if work hours permit

† Required of all students enrolling in Part Time Occupational Training Program as Social Studies equivalent

‡ School supervised paid job

As explained previously, both the specialized and the general type of business training are available in some schools. Qualified students may take the special curriculum, others may elect business courses as majors or minors in a general, or even academic, curriculum. In some schools, general or academic students may have the same program as business students. One cannot dogmatize about the virtues and defects of these curricula.

In the small school, where guidance is possible, the election of business subjects for minors and majors may be satisfactory, because it permits the student to adapt his work to his own needs. Since no teacher can be certain that any given program will fit a large body of students, this procedure has considerable merit.

In a large school, or in one where adequate guidance cannot be given, the well defined curriculum may be more desirable. Although this tends to put students into a strait jacket, it makes sure that the program of study is organized and that the sequence is logical. If the student is interested in bookkeeping, his major sequence may be a year of introduction to business and two years of bookkeeping, followed by a year of office practice

DO BUSINESS COURSES ATTRACT INFERIOR STUDENTS?

Frequently it is said that business courses attract inferior students. As a matter of fact, the reverse is sometimes true. The deciding factor, many times, is an economic one. The student, regardless of his intellectual ability, enrolls in the business course for 'bread-and-butter' reasons. Where only an academic and a commercial program are offered, the former usually attracts the superior pupils. But, where academic (that is, college entrance), business, industrial arts, and general curricula are offered, the business students are as a rule superior to the general students. A specialized program usually has specific requirements, hence, its attractiveness to the better students. The poorer students choose the general course, which thus becomes a catchall. There are exceptions, of course.

In dealing with the high school, one must carefully differentiate between academic and general curricula, otherwise, serious mistakes will be made in choosing material for the various programs. Important questions are: Should bright students be guided into academic work and inferior students into industrial arts and general curricula? Should the business curriculum absorb only the run-of-the-mill pupils? Are there not many opportunities for both bright and dull workers in business? The problems revolving about these questions will be considered in detail in subsequent chapters.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What is the nature of past enrollment trends in high schools?
2. What changes have taken place in the number and nature of enrollments since 1910?
3. What are likely to be the future trends in high school enrollment?

4. In what way has the increased enrollment in the high school created a social lag in curriculum development?

5. What were the early aims of the secondary school?

6. Compare the proposed curriculum of the Committee of Nine (1903) with a present curriculum. How significant are the variations? How do you account for the change or lack of change?

7. What is meant by a common core program? What are the justifications for such a program? Any disadvantages? How will a common core affect the business training program?

8. What occupational problems should be considered in the construction of business curricula?

9. What personal-use problems should be considered in the construction of business curricula?

10. What core prescriptions should be required in the business curricula?

11. Should a high school set up curricula or sequences in business education? If so, why, and under what conditions?

12. Name the weaknesses in the combination business curriculum. Are there any justifications for such a curriculum?

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CHAPTER XVIII

Training for Bookkeeping Occupations

DURING the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the bookkeeper was the principal employee in the average office. Throughout this period, the bookkeeping course received far more attention from business educators than the stenographic program. This was true not only in the high school but also in the private business school. This was justified, for, until fairly recently, bookkeeping was literally the open sesame to service in business, either as a worker or as an entrepreneur.

Today, however, the general bookkeeper has disappeared from most business offices. His place has been taken by the auditor and accountant, who are required to have professional knowledge, by numerous ledger clerks, who need specialized instruction based on duties performed, and by bookkeeping machine operators, whose numbers have increased rapidly. It must be realized that many small businesses never did, and do not now, keep complete sets of books. The majority of small merchants quite generally limit their records to a spindle or two to hold paid and unpaid bills. This is not desirable. Most small business men could profit by better record keeping. It is, however, unlikely that a realization of this would result in increased opportunities for beginning bookkeepers, because, at present, when businessmen become aware of their need, they often hire an accountant for a day or two a month to work out their records for them. It is usually better done and less expensive than the full time services of any bookkeeper they could hire.

While bookkeeping machines were developed over a century ago, their use has not been extensive until recently. Their use has resulted

in tremendous savings in cost, in improvement of speed, and in increased accuracy. Modern machines can post to the customer's ledger, make the customer's statement, the total control account, and if desired, age accounts in one step, they can transfer balances and prepare trial balances. They can, of course, render the complementary service for accounts payable. The use of microfilming also is an effective aid in accounting. Statistical tabulating machines, using punched cards, are becoming increasingly important recording devices.

Most important, of course, has been the growth of automation as a means of saving labor and as a means of making more accounting data available than ever before. Through electronic and other data processing procedures, large masses of business facts can be tabulated, reorganized, and presented to management for interpretation in a fraction of the time it took when hand entry making and posting were typical.

In 1960 only a small portion of the potential of automation as a means of increasing the efficiency of recording had been achieved.

IS THERE EXCESSIVE ENROLLMENT IN BOOKKEEPING?

The high schools of today are teaching bookkeeping to almost half a million students. If all these students succeeded in obtaining jobs, there would have to be a complete turnover every two years in bookkeeping positions. Moreover, some bookkeeping positions are filled by persons who have had no formal instruction. Obviously, only a small proportion of the boys and girls receiving bookkeeping instruction will ever be able to use their knowledge vocationally as bookkeepers. What, then, are the objectives of bookkeeping?

OBJECTIVES OF BOOKKEEPING IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

When bookkeeping was first introduced into the high school, its objective was primarily vocational. The content of the courses and the method of teaching were patterned after those of the private business school, where the emphasis was placed (and still is) on the immediate vocational efficiency of the student. Bookkeeping teachers were largely recruited from these schools.

Changes in Objectives As soon as bookkeeping had established a place for itself in the high school, administrators and teachers began

to feel that its position was not justified by its mere job-getting value—they wished to endow it with cultural purposes. They argued that, although the subject was a newcomer and did not have high-sounding objectives, it was just as useful to students as the more traditional subjects because of its disciplinary or transfer-of-training value and its help in making the student a better citizen.

Bookkeeping was supposed to be akin to mathematics, which held first place, in status, in the program of studies. If mathematics has disciplinary value, why should not bookkeeping also partake of this virtue? Would not the careful thinking required in the keeping of accounts carry over into other fields? Bookkeeping, furthermore, stresses neatness in writing and honesty in recording. Why should not these traits carry over into other activities? Moreover, does not an understanding of bookkeeping make a student a better judge of governmental finances, and hence a better citizen? That was the reasoning.

By 1925, however, the disciplinary objectives of bookkeeping had become relatively unimportant. Educational psychologists had shown that transfer-of-training value was inherent in no subject, but that it existed in any subject where genuine provision was made for such transfer to outside activities. But the great stress placed upon education for citizenship in the 1920's induced most business educators to accept such education as an objective of bookkeeping.

PRESENT OBJECTIVES

Among the objectives of bookkeeping mentioned in the prefaces of several current textbooks are

- 1 To learn how to make better records for personal and home use
- 2 To be able to interpret and analyze business papers and records in the capacity of consumer
- 3 To study bookkeeping records and reports as an aid in the management of business enterprise
- 4 To train students for positions in bookkeeping occupations.

Are these objectives complementary, that is, does the pursuit of one help to develop the others? That is apparently the attitude of administrators of business education who list all four objectives in a single course.

If the objectives are complementary, then a knowledge of accounting is useful to the young worker in his initial bookkeeping position (probably that of ledger clerk). Conversely, also, a knowledge of the skills required by ledger clerks will materially aid the manager of any business enterprise. Finally, both are highly desirable for the consumer of business services, who will thus be able to choose wisely the offerings of business, as well as be more adept in keeping personal accounts.

The average teacher of bookkeeping, confronted with the task of attaining diverse objectives, tries to attain all four of those just mentioned, consequently, he often finds that his students do not become proficient in any of them. This practice of juxtaposing divergent aims offers, in some cases, a valid explanation for recent criticism of bookkeeping instruction. As the four proposed objectives serve different groups of pupils, it is possible they might be better achieved in four courses rather than in one.

THE PERSONAL-USE OBJECTIVES

The personal use objective of bookkeeping involves a study of household and personal accounts, budgeting and similar items. These topics should be fully treated in junior business training in the ninth year and presented again in the eleventh or twelfth year in advanced business training. It would hardly seem necessary, therefore, to offer a separate course in order to attain this objective of bookkeeping.

The assumption that a person should know double-entry bookkeeping in order to keep household accounts is hardly worth considering. A few people keep such records, but usually for personal satisfaction only.

Some books on elementary bookkeeping place great emphasis on personal use record keeping. Their major attention is given to problems of setting up cash books, journals, ledgers, and so forth. They stress entry making and because of the supposed immaturity of the student, give little consideration to the utilization of the sort of records made. This is unwise because a student, regardless of his age, must think his way clearly through the bookkeeping process if records are to be meaningful to him. Writing merely for the sake of writing should be minimized. Whether working toward personal use or any other objective, written exercises should be used primarily as a basis for determining whether the student can apply that which he has learned. It is more

important that the first year student understand why he is undertaking a particular process than it is that he know the mere mechanics involved. Entry making, as such, has a place, but it should be subordinate.

In these elementary courses in record keeping, a large amount of time is devoted to the budget. This is true of elementary courses in home economics and in the social studies, as well as in business education. The budget is an important and useful device in wise money management, but it is not a solution to the problem. Merely making budgets and keeping records in connection with predetermined budgets is not sufficient for the real education of the consumer.

If the consumer does not have a checking account, then a cashbook will be needed. It should be kept at its very simplest level. Setting up cashbooks with ten and twenty columns is ridiculous for the average consumer.

If the consumer has a commercial bank account, a checkbook is the only cash record necessary if he deposits all income in his account and draws all expenses from it. In these days when so many banks make it convenient for the little man to have a checking account with only a small balance by the payment of a fee of five or ten cents for each deposit made or check withdrawn, the advantages of this form of money control are obvious.

When cash withdrawals are made from a checking account, the major details of the expenditure for which the cash withdrawal was made can be indicated on the check stub, and thereby a full record of spending will be given in the checkbook. From a record of this type the usual small consumer can easily summarize his income and expenditure as frequently as necessary.

This procedure obviously will not do for the small businessman or for the man with an income of \$25,000 or more a year. For the average family, and even for those with more than average incomes, such simple records are adequate and are more likely to be kept. More important is the ability to use the records. The core of wise spending is the ability of the consumer to utilize his records in order to think through his money problems.

Budgeting is an aid, not a substitute, for clear thinking. Unless these records give the consumer a knowledge that will enable him to make wiser consumer choices, such record keeping is futile and in some cases may be an interference with better choice making.

Among the topics that may be included in a course in personal use bookkeeping are

Using checks	Recording installment purchases
Keeping a hankhook	Keeping social security records
Caring for checkbooks	Keeping insurance records
Reconciling bank statements	Figuring income and other taxes
Figuring interest	Reading simple financial statements
Keeping personal cash accounts	Making record of family income and expense
Keeping petty cash accounts	Making family record of net worth
Keeping records of social group	Opportunities in bookkeeping and accounting
Planning and maintaining a budget	
Taking inventory	
Keeping personal files	
Making financial graphs	
Checking bills and statements	

THE INTERPRETATIVE OBJECTIVES

During the last decade, bookkeeping instruction in the high schools has tended to emphasize the interpretative objective—the understanding of records and reports. The balance-sheet method of approach, with its endeavor to substitute actual thinking for the memorization of rules, has come into general use. Students are urged to interpret individual transactions, such as the increase or decrease of assets, liabilities, or capital, in terms of their effect upon the balance sheet.

Many instructors nevertheless, are minimizing interpretative training in order to have time for teaching such techniques as opening and closing accounts which generally are handled by accountants. As interpretative bookkeeping is usually given in the second year, and for one year only students consequently are never taught a considerable part of the subject. This is most unfortunate.

As the late Earl G. Blackstone indicated

Only a relatively small number of students just out of high school obtain positions as practicing bookkeepers. It is difficult therefore to justify the subject for its direct vocational use for so many students. However every business executive to do his work successfully must be able to interpret

correctly the records provided him by his bookkeeping department, this also applies to minor executives in many cases

Therefore, I should like to see bookkeeping taught from the interpretative point of view, with the objective of teaching students to analyze bookkeeping summaries and statements, rather than spend a great deal of time in going through the process of making them. Just as a businessman can interpret the readings of the speedometer on his car, without being able to make a speedometer, he should be able to interpret bookkeeping summaries, whether he can make them or not. By starting with simple summaries of small concerns, I believe students could be taught this interpretation. By degrees they could be taught to interpret more complex statements.

It is highly desirable, then, that many of the topics in second-year bookkeeping be transferred to the first year and that a considerable number of those now presented in the first year be postponed until the second year.¹ Under such a schedule, students who take bookkeeping for one year only would receive the essentials from a managerial point of view and yet would not be distracted by the technical details, and the relatively few students who are particularly interested in the technical aspects of bookkeeping would be permitted to take the second year of the subject. Bookkeeping taught from such a point of view might well become a required course for all high school students.

Interpretative bookkeeping should not be allowed to degenerate into a mere study of personal and family records, although a certain amount of direct instruction might be introduced in order to complete the knowledge already acquired in elementary business training.

Any person with common sense can develop his own method of adding and subtracting from his cash account, but he needs a certain amount of technical training to interpret financial statements.

A program in interpretative record keeping should serve as background for any business occupation, on the initial job level, and especially at the promotional stage.

In studying the balance sheet the student should be taught to analyze the various items to determine the soundness of the business. He should, for example, understand (1) the function of cash and the relative amount required, (2) the problems of maintaining profitable inventories,

¹ The New York State Syllabus gives considerable recognition to this situation.

(3) the disadvantage of too large inventories and the difficulties that go with hand-to-mouth buying, (4) the fact that accounts receivable, while listed as fluid assets, occasionally become solidified and thus fail in meeting current liabilities, (5) the justification for good will in a balance sheet and the extent to which it may be used merely to balance an inflated capitalization

The same process of interpretation should be followed in studying the profit and loss statement. For example, in considering the sales section, the problem of sales returns may be treated as an unwarranted expense under some conditions. Again, in dealing with the cost-of-goods-sold section, the possibilities of various types of buying should be treated. Obviously, in learning the expense section, the student can learn to evaluate various problems, such as excess taxation, unjustified overhead, the extent to which high rent is justified, and the like.

The student should be led to recognize the problem of contingent liabilities, not only in the liabilities section of the balance sheet or in terms of discounting notes receivable, but also all through the operation of business. He should fully appreciate the unforeseen as the danger element in business. There is a constant possibility that the account that seems good may turn out to be uncollectible. Such risks should be analyzed carefully, so that the student can understand why some business costs cannot be avoided, and why, in fact, they must be faced courageously if the business is to make a profit.

New texts are not vital to the development of a program of consumer record keeping training such as outlined here, but they will facilitate the teacher's task. A good beginning has already been made in texts in elementary record keeping and in sections devoted to the problem in advanced or senior courses in general business. It may not be possible to teach home record keeping and interpretation in one course. Possibly record keeping as an aid to wise choice making should be taught in an elementary general business course, and interpretation in the advanced general business course.

Problems of the grade placement of this subject matter can be decided in the future by experiment. The need for training in both record keeping and record interpretation for all high school students is becoming more apparent, not only to business teachers but also to all progressive teachers.

Teacher training institutions are often criticized for not giving enough

instruction in interpretative bookkeeping. Inasmuch as these institutions must prepare teachers for jobs in which the traditional type of bookkeeping is usually given, they must, necessarily, emphasize traditional bookkeeping, supplementing it with as much interpretative bookkeeping as possible.

Bookkeeping taught for one term or for one year from a managerial and interpretative point of view is not a new subject but an old course with the technical aspects of such topics as opening and closing entries eliminated or subordinated.

BOOKKEEPING INSTRUCTION AS AN AID TO MANAGEMENT

The elementary ability to interpret needed by the consumer often will suffice for the manager, for, in a sense, when he uses the services of the bookkeeper and accountant he is a consumer, though not an ultimate consumer. The businessman, it is true, requires a much more detailed ability to use bookkeeping records than does the consumer. He should have a clear idea of the present processes for recording, to what extent they have been improved, and, even more important, to what extent they can be improved. He should, moreover, have a realization of the limitations, as well as the possibilities, of record keeping and accounting.

The control of business has gone far beyond the point where it can be left in the hands of the accountant alone. The management engineer, the economist, and others are equally necessary. Problems, such as these, can hardly be considered at the secondary level, they are a phase of the work of the senior collegiate school of business.

TRAINING FOR SPECIFIC OCCUPATIONS

Here are some of the types of specific bookkeeping positions listed in the Census List of Occupations:

Accountant, bank, cost, general
junior public, tax
Assessor
Bank cashier
Bank examiner
Billing machine operator
Bookkeeper
Bookkeeping machine operator

Budget engineer
Calculating machine operator
Cashier
Certified public accountant
Checker
Clerk, accounting accounts payable
accounts receivable, audit, bal-
ance, billing, budget, cost, dis-

count and interest billing, entry,	Sales analyst
general ledger, inventory, journal,	Tabulating machine operator, inter-
ledger, posting, recording, voucher	preter machine operator
Corporate trust bookkeeper	Teller
Country bank bookkeeper	Traveling auditor
General ledger bookkeeper	

Special school training is possibly desirable for all of them and necessary for most of them. Obviously the secondary school can train for few, if any, of these specific occupations within the bookkeeping category. It can, however, give basic training in several of them, as for instance for entry clerk, thus considerably reducing the problem of job adjustment. Table 17 gives the 30 most frequent duties of bookkeepers according to one major study. In 1960, it was still the best list available.

The junior college and similar institutions that are large enough to provide economical training and that have adequate placement facilities are able to give training for other occupations, such as junior accountant. The collegiate school of business is in the best position to give pre-employment training for such occupations as public accountant, bank examiner, and the like. On-the-job experience is probably even more important as a phase of training in the bookkeeping category than it is in many other types of business training.

Requisites of Successful Bookkeepers

Capable bookkeepers must write legibly and have a thorough knowledge of the fundamental processes of arithmetic. The bookkeeping teacher, however, should not be given the added duty of teaching arithmetic and penmanship. These skills should be acquired in their respective courses before instruction in bookkeeping is begun. The bookkeeping teacher can only point out the inadequacy of the writing and calculating abilities of students. Remedial teaching in penmanship and arithmetic should continue, if necessary, so long as the student remains in the school.

Specialized Bookkeeping Curricula

To what extent is differentiation of specific bookkeeping instruction needed? Here are three possible job bases for differentiation

1. *Training for Accounting and Auditing* Training for accounting and auditing is unquestionably the function of the collegiate school of business and is, therefore, beyond the scope of the secondary school

TABLE 17 *Most Frequent Duties of Bookkeepers**

<i>Duties</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Make entries in ledger accounts	1	348
Use the telephone	2	311
Use adding machine	3	290
Use filing system or systems	4	268
Examine and/or sort business papers	5	258
Prepare operating and/or financial statements	6	256
Prepare trial balances	7	244
Figure extensions on bills, invoices, statements	8	243
Verify and/or list information from business papers	9	196
Figure discounts	10	171
Use calculating machine	11	167
Make journal entries	12	159
Use bookkeeping machine	13	148
Type bills, invoices, statements	14	136
Use stapler	15	127
Balance cash daily	16	125
Keep inventory records	17	124
Prepare checks	18	120
Compute time records	19	118
Use transfer files	20	111
Make cross references	21	109
Prepare material for filing	22	104
Run errands	23	103
Use envelope sealer	24	85
Fill in printed forms on typewriter	25 5	80
Use numbering machine	25 5	80
Fold, insert letters, and seal envelopes	27 5	75
Have mail registered or insured	27 5	75
Prepare reports	29	74
Prepare payrolls	30	71

* Taken from a list of 60 duties, operations, and tasks performed by 371 bookkeepers in a "Survey of Office Duties and Employer Recommendations for Improved High School Training," *Pittsburgh Schools*, XXIII (September-October, 1948) pp 29-30

2 *Training Bookkeeping machine Operators* A knowledge of traditional bookkeeping offers little aid to the operator of a bookkeeping machine, except when he is seeking advancement. If the school is to train students for bookkeeping machine operation, it must do precisely that and not attempt to do so by means of traditional bookkeeping courses.

Notwithstanding the large number of bookkeeping machine operators absorbed by present day business, potential employment is too restricted to justify any but the larger high schools in offering training in machine operation. Even these can usually acquaint the student only superficially with the work. Only the full time vocational school, some private schools, and the corporation distributing the machine are likely to be adequately equipped to give the training needed for a high degree of operative skill. Nevertheless, the larger high schools should be equipped with bookkeeping machines, so that students may have an opportunity to become familiar with them.

3 *Training Ledger Clerks* The training of ledger clerks may be a function of the high school, since adolescents obtain such positions. Even though the student devotes two years to bookkeeping, he is usually not equipped to assume the duties of an ordinary ledger clerk without additional training on the job. This statement is borne out by the answers given by 258 bookkeepers and junior accountants who were questioned by the writer about their work. These men had taken two or more years of bookkeeping in high school and had been graduated from high school within the last two years. They had been working as bookkeepers for a median number of 14 months. Only 26 stated that they were able to perform the duties required of them in the first few weeks without additional instruction.

Courses in which the students would have an opportunity to work with actual ledgers might be set up in the senior high school. There are, of course, certain administrative difficulties in scheduling such a course because it requires a complete set of ledgers for use by each student, exceptional ability on the part of the teacher, and small classes in order to permit individual instruction.

No high school, so far as known, offers specialized instruction in ledger clerking. Perhaps the full time vocational and private business schools can accomplish this task more satisfactorily. If the high school undertakes to teach ledger clerking, the enrollment should be limited.

WHERE SHALL THE NEWER OBJECTIVES OF BOOKKEEPING BE TAUGHT?

Formerly, high school graduates could become junior or assistant bookkeepers and in a few years take over the accounting functions of an organization. The traditional bookkeeping curriculum undoubtedly prepared boys and girls for such employment, but it does so no longer.

The schools, therefore, should develop a clerical curriculum in which a certain amount of bookkeeping is offered to those who are likely to find such jobs when they graduate. In place of a single bookkeeping curriculum, schools might develop several courses that recognize the newer objectives of bookkeeping instruction, as follows:

- 1 Elementary or junior business training in which a major unit is devoted to the keeping of personal and home records. This unit, unquestionably, should be required of all students in the school.

- 2 A semester, or a one year course, in interpretive bookkeeping. This step will merely require a reorganization of current courses. Some texts have already pointed the way in this direction. The projected course, which would reinforce the personal record keeping taught in elementary business, might not only be required of all business students but might also become an elective for all students.

- 3 A second year or an advanced course for pupils with an intellectual interest in bookkeeping. Such advanced work, however, should not be given in the small high schools, where more basic subjects must take precedence.

- 4 Vocational courses in ledger clerking and machine bookkeeping in metropolitan schools. Private business and vocational schools, however, will continue to be best adapted to give the high degree of technical training required in these subjects. In any event, vocational bookkeeping courses in the senior high school should have a restricted enrollment.

- 5 Training for professional accounting will continue to be given in collegiate schools of business and similar institutions.

PLACE OF BOOKKEEPING IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Bookkeeping retains considerable popularity in the high school in spite of the fact that its objectives have, in a large measure, been discounted. The subject has virtues that many courses lack. Its subject matter is concrete, involves organized thinking, and is developed by means of related units from the first topic to the last.

Indeed, Paul Carlson ² makes a strong defense for the more traditional type of bookkeeping

Some business educators today tell us that our students do not need to know anything about bookkeeping principles. They say that any businessman who wants someone to handle his books and perhaps his statements will either hire a college graduate or he will get a public accountant to do it for him. Of course, it is true that any business of any size that would hire a new person for a position of importance in the accounting department would want someone with an unusual background of education, and preferably some experience, but in almost every office today there are many high grade accountants or bookkeepers who got where they are because they studied bookkeeping in high school. They got where they are by starting in a minor job and getting promotions based on education and experience. They could not have progressed without the initial education or additional education. Shall we force all our graduates to go back to school so they can get a promotion?

There is much merit to this point of view—no one would, it is hoped, want to eliminate all principles of bookkeeping. However, the emphasis upon future possible value, which most students will not realize at the expense of learnings of immediate values, is to be questioned. When formal accounting principles are emphasized and basic techniques are given superficial treatment, we are indulging excessively in cold storage education. In former days, it was difficult to secure further training after graduation from high school. Now post high school education is wisely available.

Whatever phases of bookkeeping are taught for vocational purposes should be completely redirected toward making these students competent ledger clerks and competent bookkeeping machine operators, rather than old time bookkeepers. Persons may say, 'Why not teach both?' This sounds fine, but the fact is that teachers do not do it. When teachers emphasize traditional double-entry-cycle bookkeeping, they neglect the skills that are involved in ledger keeping. It is a question, of course, just how much training for the work of the ledger clerk can be given in the high school. If bookkeeping is to be justified in the high school at all, it must be justified in terms of its value, in giving the pupil as a consumer a better general understanding of business. In any

² "Nuts and Bolts Philosophy," *Balance Sheet*, XXXIII (April, 1952), p. 346

event, an entirely different approach to bookkeeping teaching must be used if our teaching is to be really effective.

If the course is properly organized around appropriate subject matter, it should have considerable value to the student, regardless of his vocation

As M. Herbert Freeman, of the State Teachers College of Paterson, New Jersey, stated in a personal comment

The elementary bookkeeping course must be so organized and taught that it will interest, appeal to, and be of value to all business students in every bookkeeping class rather than be useful to only a small group of prospective accountants. Elementary bookkeeping should be a required subject for all business students without any regard to their field of specialization. The course should include a thorough review and drill on basic fundamentals in arithmetic, penmanship, and spelling. The materials used in the elementary bookkeeping course should be similar to the work done in business by office workers responsible for recording activities.

As pointed out before, the justification for specialized bookkeeping curricula in the secondary school is doubtful except in the larger metropolitan community. In most cases, a clerical curriculum with opportunity for study of the fundamentals of bookkeeping and initial-use training in bookkeeping and calculating machines is preferable. As a guide to those who may be in a position to justify a special bookkeeping curriculum, the program of a school offering such a curriculum is presented on page 298.

TRAINING FOR ACCOUNTANCY

Accountancy was a profession in Great Britain long before it reached that status in the United States. The growth of large corporations late in the nineteenth century created the need for a body of trained accountants, and certification for public accountancy by the various states soon followed. This resulted in stimulating the growth of collegiate schools of business around the opening of this century; these earlier schools, however, emphasized intellectual understanding rather than technical training for accounting, with the exception of the New York University, School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance.

Many states now require college graduation as a basic element in certification for public accountancy. New York State, for example,

*Bookkeeping Curriculum**Atlanta, Georgia**Ninth Grade*

	<i>Unit</i>
English	1
Basic mathematics	1
General science	1
Elective (first semester)	½
General business (second semester)	½

Tenth Grade

English	1
World history	1
Biology	1
Business mathematics	1
Typewriting	1

Eleventh Grade

English	1
American history	1
Bookkeeping	1
Typewriting (advanced)	1

Twelfth Grade

English	1
Social science	1
Bookkeeping	1
Business law (one semester)	½
Office practice (one semester)	½

since 1938, requires a regular four-year program in a recognized college or school of accountancy, including among other elements, 24 semester hours of accounting, 8 semester hours of business law, 8 semester hours of finance, and 6 semester hours of economics.

As in the case of high school bookkeeping, only a fraction of those who take accounting in college become, or even plan to become, accountants. The great majority take this work as a basis for better understanding of accounting as a function of management in business and industry. This naturally causes instructors of accounting to emphasize the general values of the subject rather than its technical and specifically professional aspects. No school has entirely solved this problem of meeting the different needs of both groups of students.

Another problem of accountancy instruction is that collegiate training emphasizes the theoretical phases of the work. Then when students get on the job as juniors, their work is almost entirely practical. Some provision for refresher training should be made, and more opportunity for the use of theory should be given to juniors as a basis for developing their professional growth. Opportunity for in-service training for those who have been practicing for some time and who wish to keep up with current development is also needed.

While automation will undoubtedly have tremendous impact on the recording processes in small firms as well as in the industrial giants, its full impact will not arrive for some time. It is quite clear that training for key punch operation is not justified in all but a few schools. Certainly programing and wiring training are not functions of the secondary school. However, the basic concept of bookkeeping still remains the same, and therefore reorganization, apart from that proposed in this chapter, does not seem in order on the secondary level. There is, however, little doubt that drastic reorganization of accounting instruction at the collegiate level is overdue.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 How did bookkeeping instruction enter the secondary school?
- 2 What changes have taken place in bookkeeping instruction in the past 40 years?
- 3 Upon what basis is bookkeeping now taught in secondary schools?
- 4 Make a study of personal use values of bookkeeping. List them in order of importance.
- 5 What difficulties are inherent in organizing bookkeeping instruction that has job getting possibilities?
- 6 What justification is there for special curricula in bookkeeping? Give the reasons for your answer.
- 7 Why does bookkeeping retain its popularity in the high school in spite of the limitation of its vocational use and the question concerning its value?
- 8 What proposals have been made for the reorganization of bookkeeping instruction in high schools?
- 9 Evaluate the bookkeeping curriculum of a high school with which you are familiar in the light of the opinions offered in this chapter, the references suggested, and your own judgment.
- 10 Analyze the results of the Pittsburgh NOMA study, 1948. What are the implications of the data in this study about the activities of bookkeepers?

insofar as they affect the teaching of bookkeeping in the high school? Evaluate the validity of the study. Are all activities reported equal in scope?

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See also the December issues of the *UBEA Forum* which are annually devoted to the teaching of bookkeeping.

CHAPTER XIX

Training for Stenographic Occupations

THE CHANGES in systems of communication and business techniques that have taken place within the present generation have been revolutionary in their effect. Until recent centuries, most people could not read or write. A few persons mastered the accepted means of communication, but the majority resorted to professional scribes.

EARLY METHODS OF COMMUNICATION

Until the typewriter was universally accepted, the ordinary procedure for letter writing in business houses was about as follows. The executive slowly dictated his letter while the professional copy clerk wrote it down in longhand. After the letter was written, it was put into a copying press and a duplicate was made. In the more specialized office, a third person would write the address on the envelope, and a fourth would affix the stamps. Eventually, the letter would be returned to the writer for correction and signature. Most businessmen wrote their letters in longhand.

This slow, time-consuming procedure has almost disappeared. Even the smallest office is now equipped with a typewriter. The present technique for transcribing a letter is so familiar that it needs no description here.

SOME NEW AVENUES OF COMMUNICATION

While shorthand must remain basic in any communication system, a number of new aids have been developed.

The Dictating Machine The dictating machine is one of the most promising of the newer means of communication. Among the advantages suggested are

1. A reduction in the cost of writing a letter, including dictation and transcription
2. Opportunities for standardization of dictating and transcribing procedures
3. A saving of time for the dictator and for the transcriber

The dictating machine, like all mechanical devices, has its limitations. The dictator frequently does not have a chance to correct his material. The transcriber may have difficulty in following extremely technical dictation and instructions without a chance to ask questions. The dictating machine cannot take the place of a secretary or stenographer, for many stenographic duties cannot be performed by a machine.

Dictating machine operation, learned as a supplement to stenography, is a valued skill to the prospective employee. When machine operation is taught after shorthand has been mastered, it takes comparatively little time to learn. The class in secretarial practice is probably the best place to give training in dictating machine operation.

Any school that makes any pretense at training secretaries should provide for the development of definite skill, not necessarily on the mastership level, in the use of the transcribing machine.

Until recently, few high school graduates obtained positions as dictating machine operators. Now many do. Some are trained in full time vocational schools, and many more in company schools. There is considerable dispute about the length of time it takes to train a dictating machine operator who has had no stenographic training. The answers to the question must necessarily be varied. Brighter students with a good command of English should be able to develop a minimum skill in a few weeks in the secondary school or in a week of nearly full time company training school learning. The slower students (who often enter this type of training), whose English competency is weak and for whom the employer may want more than a minimum of routine skill, will require a much longer training period to fill a station in a centralized dictating machine transcription service. The number of such centralized services is increasing rapidly.

In larger vocational high schools in metropolitan communities, there may be some justification for training dictating machine operators without preliminary training in shorthand. However, this should be done only if there is good evidence that company schools are not training operators or are doing it inadequately. There is little question that the use of dictating machines will expand considerably.

Machine Shorthand in the Schools The shorthand machine, a device by which notes are typed on a tape, has some advantages. As with shorthand, dictation can be taken at a high rate by skilled workers. The shorthand machine is especially suitable for court reporting and for recording convention speeches. Some teachers believe that the cost of the machine is a problem for most stenographers, and hence training in its use is not justified in the high school. Machine shorthand is still foreign to the average office. Nevertheless, beginning workers find excellent opportunities to use those machines in office stenographic work.

The machine is not a new device. It was developed around 1880. There is no question that it is a permanent reporting mechanism. As people become accustomed to its use, and as it becomes less expensive, its popularity undoubtedly will increase.

Many persons are under the impression that it is relatively easy to learn to use a shorthand machine, but even the manufacturers of these machines are careful to disown such claims. Under certain specialized conditions, the shorthand machine makes possible savings that are considerable. There is, moreover, little question that it is easier for shorthand-machine writers to transcribe one another's notes than it is for writers of handwritten shorthand. The development of full-time, post-high-school vocational training programs should make feasible an expansion of this type of work. Again, as in the case of dictating machines, writers of shorthand need fear the development of the shorthand machine no more than longhand writers need fear that shorthand will displace longhand.

A complex civilization requires all kinds of communication devices. Shorthand teachers can and should encourage the intelligent use of these newer means of communication. The advocates of these newer devices should not be annoyed at presentations of their limitations, for there is no question that each of them makes a significant contribution to improved correspondence procedures.

FURTHER DEVELOPMENTS IN COMMUNICATION

Methods of communication, such as the *teletype*, will undoubtedly find greater use in the future. Devices have been discussed that will automatically transcribe the spoken word into a written letter. Possibly, if a perfect phonetic spelling could be developed, an approach might be made in this direction. Undoubtedly, it will be possible, in the not too distant future, to transcribe the spoken voice upon paper. If this message can be folded, put into an envelope, sent out, and be easily transcribed by the receiver, it might very much facilitate communication. A transcribing machine would, however, always be necessary and might seriously impede easy use.

Microfilming is also a device that facilitates communication. Its use in sending V-Mail to troops abroad in World War II met with remarkable success. Nevertheless, it can be stated almost dogmatically that such appliances will never replace, or even substantially decrease, the use of the written or typed letter. All mechanical devices for facilitating communication will supplement rather than supplant the transcribed letter. As business life becomes even more complex, there will inevitably be need for many different kinds of communication including the increased use of the typed letter.

SHORTHAND IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Shorthand has an established place in the high school curriculum. During the next ten years over a third of a million students will be studying this subject every year. In spite of the pressure exerted by some academic teachers to persuade some students not to take this subject, in spite of the strong efforts of some business teachers to discourage certain types of students, and in spite of the sometimes superficial evidence given by guidance teachers about the excessive number of stenographers—students evidently feel that the subject has great utility and continue to insist, usually with the support of their parents, upon enrolling in shorthand and typewriting.

The number of stenographers increased substantially in the period between 1930 and 1960 despite predictions to the contrary. There are two counterbalancing trends to the increasing enrollment of shorthand in the high school: (1) the increased enrollment in shorthand in col

legiate schools, (2) a preference on the part of some students for other practical subjects as these are made available in the high schools. The latter trend has made little headway in the last decade, and how much it will develop in the next remains to be seen

Criticisms of Shorthand Few, if any, other subjects in the high school program have been subjected to such bitter criticism as stenography. Some antagonists of the subject, even some leaders in business education, seem to go out of their way to find reasons why instruction in this subject should be minimized. They point out, quite truly, that many students who take shorthand never complete the subject. This, they feel, indicates that there is an unsatisfactory selection of trainees.

This contention is true. In spite of sincere efforts, existing tests to prognosticate stenographic ability are not satisfactory. Even the best have low validity and are little more useful than a good intelligence test. In general, they demonstrate that a person may succeed or fail in shorthand, but equally well they give evidence that a person will succeed or fail in any other subject requiring the same degree of intellectual ability. Some of these tests have been correlated with general intelligence tests on the assumption that this proves their validity. On the contrary, the very fact that they do correlate well proves that they are not effective prognostic tests of specific shorthand ability. If they correlate too well with general intelligence, they may merely be measuring intelligence rather than specific ability for shorthand as differentiated from general intelligence.

To date, then, there is only one sound means of determining a person's ability to succeed in shorthand, and that is to let him take shorthand. Even this procedure is not entirely satisfactory, for many students have studied the subject at one level of the learning process and have been unsuccessful. Later on, when motivation became stronger, they have taken the subject again and have succeeded.

Instead of being criticized for dropping incompetent students from shorthand classes, teachers should be commended. There has been a tendency, it is true, to compel students to take shorthand for at least a year if they once start it. Usually this is not the ruling of the shorthand teacher but that of the general administrator, who finds it inconvenient to permit students to drop shorthand in the middle, or even at the end, of a term. In the foreign languages, students are sometimes compelled to take the subject for two years. Shorthand teachers have

TABLE 18 *Most Frequent Duties of Stenographers**

<i>Duties</i>	<i>Rank</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Type letters	1	357
Take dictation in shorthand and transcribe correspondence	3	355
Make carbon copies	3	355
Fill in printed forms on typewriter	3	355
Type addresses on envelopes	5	354
Copy data from one record to another on typewriter	6	353
Use the telephone	7	339
Type form letters	8	335
Copy from rough draft or corrected copy on typewriter	9	333
Type telegrams, radiograms, cablegrams	10.5	304
Prepare stencil for use on duplicating machine	10.5	304
Type cards	12	298
Fold, insert letters, and seal envelopes	13	284
Type manuscripts, legal forms, specifications, briefs, or outlines	14	279
Take dictation in shorthand and transcribe reports or notices, legal matter	15	278
Examine and/or sort business papers	16	276
Compose and type letters with or without instruction as to content	17	266
Use stapler	18	257
Set up and type tabulations	19	253
Prepare material for filing	20	240
Verify and/or list information from business papers	21	236
Use filing system or systems	22	229
Receive business callers	23	211
Make cross references	24	205
Open, sort, and distribute mail	25	203
Prepare mailing lists	26	197

* The 26 most frequent of 73 duties, operations, and tasks performed by 359 stenographers. From "Survey of Office Duties and Employers' Recommendations for Improved High School Training," *Pittsburgh Schools*, XXIII (September-October 1948), pp 16-17.

done much, and should do more, to encourage students to drop the subject when they are found incapable of, or unwilling to, attain adequate learning

The teaching of shorthand in some schools is undoubtedly mediocre, consequently, adequate vocational skill is not developed. However, it is altogether likely that, in those same schools, the teaching of most other subjects is equally ordinary and possibly even worse. At least there is some final test of shorthand skill while, as a rule, there is none of the mastery of typical academic subjects. Although the teaching of shorthand should be improved, equal, and usually even more improvement is possible in academic subjects.

At times more persons have taken shorthand than there were jobs available. This creates job opportunity problems, but again the blame should not be placed on the shorthand teacher. Students naturally want a specific vocational skill with which to make their way into business life. In fact, the community should commend them for their zeal in this respect. Yet few other vocational skill trainings are available in the typical high school. While most students succeed just as well in their initial work in the distributive occupations, regardless of previous training or a lack of it, this is not the case in stenographic service.

Stenographic teachers are being condemned for a characteristic inherent in the occupational life. Most jobs do not require specific training. Students realize this and, therefore, will take shorthand on the gamble that they may get a job through it. But when they find that the subject requires real learning, their interest wanes. Except in war times, more high school students seem to have found initial occupational placement through stenography than through all other job training given in the secondary school. Yet, business teachers who should know better, as well as general educators, condemn the vocational merits of this subject.

There is no exact evidence of the number of persons who have taken other vocational subjects, and consequently obtained jobs, as compared with those who have taken stenography and obtained jobs as a result of such training. Who would be courageous enough or foolish enough to undertake research to prove that the home economics courses have been more (or less) successful in improving homemaking in the American home than stenography has been successful in giving people opportunities in stenographic service? Techniques of research are not sufficiently refined, and even if they were, the data are too difficult to secure

These comments should not be taken as ardent defense of all shorthand instruction or criticism of home economics training. The criticisms that should be made of shorthand (and they will be given in this chapter) should be specific, remedial, and constructive rather than destructive.

PERSONAL USE OF SHORTHAND

Perhaps the most undeveloped aspect of shorthand is its use as a means of personal communication. Many attempts have been made to substitute shorthand for longhand in personal use. Whether this can ever be entirely successful is beyond prognostication at present.

Before shorthand can find a more general use for communication between persons on a nonvocational basis, or possibly even on a vocational basis, certain developments must take place.

1 Shorthand must be taught so simply that it is easy to learn. Much of the apparent complexity of learning shorthand is due to poor teaching.

From the very beginning, teachers should constantly try to keep the students' learning as close to the situation use as possible. Too often teachers permit students to assume that materials transcribed acceptably for learning purposes are also acceptable on the job. This will necessitate a later relearning of attitudes. These suggestions and those that follow, it will be noted, are equally significant for job-use shorthand training. This is quite logical, for as shorthand becomes easier to learn for personal use, it will also be easier to learn for job use. The reverse is, of course, also true. Better methods of learning shorthand will result in more use of shorthand for personal activities, and will ease the problem of training for the initial job.

Fairly able students can learn shorthand theory within one school year with one class period of regular instruction each day. They should also be able to acquire a minimum dictation rate of 80 words a minute, provided there are no serious handicaps in the knowledge of English grammar or vocabulary.

2 No matter how simply shorthand is taught, its actual content will have to be simplified even further before it is used extensively for personal purposes. More of the advanced techniques, which develop high rates of speed, must be eliminated for the average student. The more popular systems of shorthand are all constructed to make possible dictation taken at very high speed rates. In fact, shorthand can be written

by skilled technicians at a higher rate of speed than it is usually possible for many persons to speak. For ordinary purposes, shorthand systems are generally more efficient than they need to be. This results in a longer period of learning than is needed.

Some attempts have been made to set up simplified shorthand based on the most used systems. Graham and Munson both are somewhat variant adaptations of Pitman. In the Pitmanic systems, the adaptations may have been adaptations for convenience rather than significant simplifications. There seems to be no major technical difficulty that should prevent Gregg Shorthand from being so modified that students can quickly learn the simpler aspects of the system and take dictation at, let us say, up to 90 words a minute, and yet, when they wish to increase their speed, be able to acquire the more advanced procedures with little or no relearning.

3. In order to popularize shorthand for personal use, it must be taught as early as the first year of junior high school—probably even earlier. Basically, shorthand is probably easier to learn than longhand. If, therefore, general principles are reduced to the minimum and speed techniques are not stressed, the young child who can learn longhand can surely learn shorthand. The difficulty is that, by the time students reach high school, their use of longhand has been so well fixed that they do not want to adapt themselves to a new method of writing.

Many writers do make personal use of their shorthand skill, generally because they have maintained it on a job level. Those who use shorthand only personally are usually persons who have used it for a considerable number of years on the job. Few use shorthand for personal purposes merely on the basis of high school training in the subject in its present form. Regrettably, in spite of the considerable discussion of personal use shorthand going back to the 1880's, little progress has actually been made.

ABBREVIATED LONGHAND

In recent years, abbreviated systems of longhand for personal and job use have had quite some vogue. There are over a dozen such systems now available. With an organized system of abbreviations, a person can take simple dictation up to 100 words a minute for a short period of time. However, the ability to take sustained and somewhat involved

dictation at this speed has not been proved. With a fairly good memory, anyone can take a brief spurt of dictation even with longhand for a few moments. Such ability is of little value. As Nichols has often pointed out in his criticisms of shorthand instruction, it is the ability to take dictation on the job for long periods of time that is crucial. While an organized system of abbreviations has value for some purposes, it has the limitation that the employee will have to start all over with a regular system of shorthand if he wishes to attain higher speeds.

LEARNING PROCEDURES IN SHORTHAND

An extensive consideration of shorthand methodology is beyond the province of this book. Nevertheless, the content of shorthand and its placement in the curriculum are so completely interwoven with learning procedures that they cannot be entirely ignored.

Inasmuch as shorthand is a subject in which beginning students have usually had no previous experience, some teachers assume that there should be no pretesting. This attitude is unfortunate. As was pointed out before, prognostic testing in shorthand has not been found adequately valid. However, those students found to be intellectually inferior should be discouraged from taking shorthand. In addition, a rather careful diagnosis of the student's knowledge of English usage is essential. Failure in transcription ability is caused as much by poor understanding of English usage as by inability to read the shorthand notes. Unless the student can transcribe a letter that is mailable, it is, for job purposes, unsatisfactory. Ability to read back dictated material does not assure ability to set up a mailable letter. It is at this point that the student's ability in the use of English becomes significant. Increased knowledge of English essentials is, therefore, sometimes even more important than the further development of ability to take dictation. Shorthand teachers have at times become overacademic in this failure to recognize the job needs.

The development of the Functional Method in Gregg Shorthand (primarily a direct reading approach) and of the eclectic method of teaching Pitman shorthand, has improved the teaching of shorthand. Shorthand learning is essentially a language type of learning. In learning their native tongue, children hear the language first and only after they have learned to read and to write do they study the rules of gram-

mar There is much debate about the extent to which grammatical instruction improves English usage

Who has not heard students say, "I can take dictation at 100 words a minute, hut the trouble is I can't read what I write " A reading approach helps to overcome this weakness

TYPEWRITING

The growth of typing instruction in the last ten years has been phenomenal It has, in many cases, more than balanced the loss of enrollment in other business subjects A considerable number of students take typing with little intention of using it vocationally This group is increasing, for the development of portables has encouraged the use of the typewriter in the home

Successful experiments have been made in the use of typewriters in the elementary schools, from the kindergarten through the eighth grade The aim has not been to teach typewriting, hut rather to motivate and aid in the learning of reading and of written expression The result has been an improvement in the learning of other subjects, including arithmetic, in which writing plays a part This may be interpreted as proof of the value of a more efficient writing instrument, such as the typewriter, over a less efficient one, such as the pen or pencil

A few high schools segregate students who take typewriting for vocational purposes from those who do not intend to use it vocationally Until the learner has acquired a certain degree of basic typewriting skill, it is difficult to understand how there can be any differentiation between the training of vocational and nonvocational typists Obviously, it is unwise to limit job-minded students to the degree of skill that is satisfactory for those who wish to learn typewriting merely for personal use

Provision must be made for the large number of students who do not know at the outset what use they will make of typewriting Some who expect to make only a personal use of typewriting discover it has unexpected possibilities Many of these students use it later for vocational purposes

A subject must be made intrinsically interesting to the student, either through content or through method During the first two or three weeks, all students enjoy learning to type At this time, their interest is spon-

ness curriculum in the high school What types of courses should be included in this curriculum?

A practical answer can be found in the New Rochelle (New York) Senior High School secretarial curriculum, which is organized as follows

Secretarial Curriculum

<i>Tenth Year</i>	<i>Eleventh Year</i>	<i>Twelfth Year</i>
English	English	English
World history	American history	Shorthand II and trans-
Typewriting	Shorthand I	cription (double
Business training	Typewriting (second	period)
Business and social	year)	Secretarial practice
adjustment	Bookkeeping, half year	Co-operative work
	Business law, half year	

In many schools, only one year of shorthand is given, because of the way shorthand is taught in public schools at the present time, usable skills are often not developed in one year Some curriculum makers, therefore, suggest that, unless a really adequate skill is developed, the subject be eliminated from those schools There is some validity to this point of view Nevertheless, it should be realized that thousands of girls who have had only one year of shorthand in high school satisfactorily complete their skill development in private business schools in much less time Incentive for taking such training is, consequently, increased Many persons, thus, become successful stenographers because they received an initial opportunity for learning in high school It is, therefore, erroneous to assume that those who take only one year of shorthand never make job use of their learning

JOB OBJECTIVE IS BASIC

The manner in which stenography is taught is quite as important as the actual content and school placement Effective teaching of shorthand requires competent teachers Teachers should have rather extensive experience on the job, not only as stenographers but also as correspondents, inasmuch as shorthand teachers use their abilities in the classroom not primarily in the former capacity but in the latter When a steno-

graphic teacher has served only as a stenographer, he has only half the experience background actually needed

Most stenography teachers have had no experience as correspondents. Consequently, they devote all their attention to formalized timed dictation. This is wrong because dictators cannot and will not give their dictation on a timed basis. While they are thinking through their dictation they may wait for a minute or two and then give dictation at the rate of 120 or more words a minute. Generally, they give dictation at an average rate of 60 words a minute. They hesitate, they correct themselves and expect their stenographers to know when they are talking to them rather than giving dictation. They interrupt to talk to other people, and then expect the stenographer to be able to help them make the transition back to the dictated material. Unless students learn to take dictation under such conditions, they have failed to make an adequate adaptation to the job environment. This is one of the more serious deficiencies in stenographic training that can be remedied by giving stenographic teachers not *just* business experience but the *right kind* of business experience.

Basic, of course, is the ability to transcribe dictation into mailable letters at reasonable production rates. Shorthand competency is futile unless made functional by transcription competency.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Make a detailed report on the history of shorthand and a similar one on the history of typing. Use the encyclopedias for references, also the articles by John R. Gregg in the *Business Education World*.

2. Trace the history of communication. References in encyclopedias will give a starting point.

3. Make a study of the future possibilities for improvement in communication. See the reports of the *National Resources Committee*.

4. What answer would you give to a superintendent who says that shorthand should not be taught in high school?

5. How would you answer the assertion that the dictating machine and machine shorthand have made shorthand instruction unnecessary?

6. In what ways has improved shorthand methodology helped to reduce the problems of shorthand instruction?

7. What must be done to bring shorthand into more general use? To what extent is this general use desirable?

8. To what extent should typing for personal use and for job training be combined? What basis may be used for segregation?

9. Evaluate the data given in Table 18. What are the implications for the revision of the stenographic program in the high school? If possible, study the complete data given in the source document

10. Obtain the stenographic curriculum for some school with which you are acquainted. Compare it with that of New Rochelle, N. Y.

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See also the October and November issues of the *UBEA Forum* which are usually devoted to shorthand (October) and typewriting (November).

CHAPTER XX

Training for Clerical Occupations

AS WAS STATED in Chapter IX, there are more than five million clerical workers in the United States—far more than the number of bookkeepers and stenographers combined. The same tendency toward diversification that has developed in bookkeeping, and to a lesser extent in stenographic occupations, is even more evident in clerical service.

Clerical workers are sometimes called "general clerks" but actually there are few general clerks in the original sense of the term. In fact, it is difficult to give a precise definition of the word *clerk*. Many persons who call themselves bookkeepers are really clerks, the same is true of cashiers. On the other hand, in distributive occupations, many workers are employed primarily as clerks.

For practical purposes, clerical occupations may be defined as the occupations that include the office duties not generally assigned to bookkeepers, stenographers, salespeople, or managers.

A slightly different definition of clerical occupations is given personally by Jessie Graham, supervisor of business education, Adult and Vocational Education Division, Los Angeles.

Clerical occupations are those occupations that include one or more of the duties assigned to office and store workers who do not specialize in bookkeeping, stenography, salesmanship, or management.

CLASSIFICATION OF CLERICAL WORKERS

Although general clerks are in reality highly specialized employees who undertake a limited number of duties, the number in each of the

many specializations is so small that it is difficult to assign such workers a differentiated occupational grouping. The tendency, therefore, is to place all these workers in the classification of general clerks.

The payroll nomenclature commonly used will serve to indicate the types of work performed by persons who are called general clerks.

Of the more than six hundred occupational listings, the following are a few of the more common ones coming under the clerical classification.

Agent	Office machine operator (many types)
Appraiser	Order clerk
Baggageman, agent, clerk, master	Payroll clerk, checker
Booking agent	Receiving clerk
Business agent	Receptionist
Cash boy, girl, clerk	Route clerk
Checker	Runner
Clerk (not in stores)	Shipping clerk
Commercial agent, clerk	Station agent
Dispatcher	Stock clerk
Field agent, clerk	Tallyman, clerk
File clerk	Telephone clerk, operator
Freight agent, clerk	Teller
General clerk	Ticket agent, clerk
Inspector	Timekeeper, clerk
Investigator	Traffic agent, clerk, man
Mail boy, girl, agent, clerk	

Some of these jobs may be limited to the performance of a half-dozen different duties, while others may involve as many as 100 or 200 duties. There are also many combination jobs. Some require a little knowledge of bookkeeping, others, considerable skill in typing. Some require abilities that are used in many firms on many jobs, others involve duties unique to the particular office and position.

The majority of general clerical workers are relatively young persons, indicating that most persons who enter this type of work soon drop out or receive promotional opportunity.

The nature of clerical work in the United States is well explained by a group of British management men.

Between those who have direct responsibility for a function of the office and the remainder of the office there is a considerable gap in the kind of work expected. There are very few highly skilled clerks, and equally few quite unskilled.

The main body are semi skilled Above all, they are expected to be flexible They must be capable of doing several different jobs and willing to change at a moment's notice from one to another Women are expected, for the most part, to know certain clerical routines, to type and to work a calculating machine They will change quickly from one to the other during the day as the course of the work demands

The flexibility referred to above is, however, the main American contribution to the solution of the problem Every job has to be broken down into smaller elements, which can be learnt quite easily, without long training, by an intelligent person In this way the number of persons who are engaged on a particular routine may be changed according to the varying pressure of work It is not worth while to employ purely unskilled clerks, because in any case the minimum wage payable is so high that some degree of skill can be expected ¹

In the case of calculators, adding machines, typewriters, and the like, the report points out that

Such machines may be regarded as mechanical aids to be used as and when required Provided they save working time they are considered worth while They save the time that would be wasted if a clerk had either to write or calculate long hand, or take his work to a typist or calculating machine operator and wait for the result In many offices almost every clerk and shorthand typist is supplied with a calculator, and even many clerks are supplied with typewriters Far more machinery may be provided than is strictly necessary, but since the wages cost of clerical labor is so high the expenditure is considered worth while ²

CAN THE SCHOOL TRAIN CLERKS?

The question 'Can the school train clerks?' cannot be answered by a simple "Yes" or "No" For certain types of specific clerical jobs, the answer is "Yes" For other types of highly specialized or unusual clerical service, the answer is "No" In many cases of clerical training, the answer is, "Yes, to a degree" Because of the numerous combinations of duties assigned to clerks, it is impossible for the school to give complete and specific training on a pre-employment basis The situation is somewhat

¹ Anglo-American Council on Productivity, "A British View of the American Office," *Office Executive* (September, 1951), pp 11-12

² *Ibid*, p 12.

the same as that which prevails in those occupations broadly known as distributive services. Thousands of opportunities develop each year in various clerical occupations requiring little or no specific training, and thousands of more or less specially trained applicants apply each year for such positions. If the secondary school gives too highly specialized training, the chances are greatly reduced of matching the specifically trained person with a job requiring his specific abilities.

In most general clerical opportunities, specific knowledge and skill requirements are few, while personality requirements are rather high. The prospective employer, therefore, places more emphasis on personal qualifications and less on special training. Mere intelligence is not by any means the sole criterion, stability, accuracy, dexterity, and willingness to remain at routine work may be equally, and at times even more important.

For example, an office receptionist is, in a sense, a general clerical worker. It is rather difficult to train people in high school or even in a post high school program for such work. True, there are some abilities that the prospective receptionist should possess that will make her more effective in that job. These abilities, however, can be learned rather rapidly on the job. When, therefore, the prospective employer is looking for a new receptionist, he gives little thought to seeking a girl specially trained in school. He gives much consideration to looks, manner of wearing clothes, general demeanor, apparent ability to learn, and, most important of all, recommendations from associates. The girl who comes in with credentials certifying that she is trained in the work of a receptionist will have little chance of getting a job compared to her competitor who comes in with specific recommendations as to general personality from business associates or friends of the employer.

This is not true when the employer is hiring a prospective stenographer. Then he wants evidence of specific ability to take dictation and transcribe mailable letters. Recommendations from friends or business associates count less than ability to do the job. The stenographer requires specific skill that must be learned before going on the job. The girl hired as a receptionist can serve, though not entirely satisfactorily to be sure, from the very first day without any previous training. The problem of raising the general standard of clerical service in business cannot be met to any considerable extent in the high school. It is a problem of in-service, at-the-desk training.

Lewis Toll, of Normal University, Illinois, in a personal statement has some cautions and reservations about clerical training

It is not desirable for many high schools to set up a general clerical curriculum which includes more than one or two semesters of work specifically designed to give training for the numerous specialized and general office clerks other than stenographers and bookkeepers

There is justification for a capstone course for clerk typists and for other office workers of the so called 'general clerical' group. In most high school programs it is possible to introduce such a course without adding another semester of clerical work to the pupils' load. The course could take the place of either the fourth semester of typewriting or of both the third and fourth semester of this subject. Further improvement in typewriting techniques and the typing of real or simulated office projects should be a part of the course. Another aim of such a course would be to introduce a few of the most commonly used office machines and procedures.

While it is true that proficiency in the performance of most of the non-typing duties of 'general clerical' work can best be learned on the job, an acquaintanceship with some of these duties may give the beginning office employees a little more self assurance than they would otherwise have. Elementary filing, using the telephone and using an adding machine are probably the most important of these duties for which some pre employment training is desirable. In the clerical practice course however, more emphasis should be placed on the development of the individual as a worker than upon his acquisition of new techniques. The greatest justification for the course lies in the remedial training it provides to improve fundamental skills and to develop such work habits as accuracy, neatness, thoroughness and following oral and written instruction.

One of the principal deterrents to extensive general clerical offerings is the fact that only a few of the miscellaneous clerical duties will ever be performed on the job by many of the pupils in the manner taught in the classroom. Businessmen usually say that they prefer to train on the job for most of the technical duties included in an expansive general clerical curriculum. The course planners should also keep in mind that most of the 'general clerks' are actually highly specialized clerks who perform only a few simple operations on the job, and who perform them in the manner preferred by the individual employer.

The parents, school administrators, and businessmen are probably correct in assuming that the economic and social pressures are greater for many other high school courses than they are for general clerical courses, with the possible exception of the abovementioned capstone course for typists who

the same as that which prevails in those occupations broadly known as distributive services. Thousands of opportunities develop each year in various clerical occupations requiring little or no specific training, and thousands of more or less specially trained applicants apply each year for such positions. If the secondary school gives too highly specialized training, the chances are greatly reduced of matching the specifically trained person with a job requiring his specific abilities.

In most general clerical opportunities, specific knowledge and skill requirements are few, while personality requirements are rather high. The prospective employer, therefore, places more emphasis on personal qualifications and less on special training. Mere intelligence is not by any means the sole criterion; stability, accuracy, dexterity, and willingness to remain at routine work may be equally, and at times even more, important.

For example, an office receptionist is, in a sense, a general clerical worker. It is rather difficult to train people in high school or even in a post high school program for such work. True, there are some abilities that the prospective receptionist should possess that will make her more effective in that job. These abilities, however, can be learned rather rapidly on the job. When, therefore, the prospective employer is looking for a new receptionist, he gives little thought to seeking a girl specially trained in school. He gives much consideration to looks, manner of wearing clothes, general demeanor, apparent ability to learn, and, most important of all, recommendations from associates. The girl who comes in with credentials certifying that she is trained in the work of a receptionist will have little chance of getting a job compared to her competitor who comes in with specific recommendations as to general personality from business associates or friends of the employer.

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The parents, school administrators, and businessmen are probably correct in assuming that the economic and social pressures are greater for many other high school courses than they are for general clerical courses, with the possible exception of the abovementioned capstone course for typists who

intend to start working in office positions other than stenography or bookkeeping. Furthermore, in the business departments of most high schools, the need for additional basic business courses is greater than the need for more clerical courses.

The fact that the school often cannot provide specific clerical training does not justify the elimination of such training. Indeed, as Toll indicates, a program of considerable value even to prospective clerks, though not specific, can be offered in the secondary school.

Yet most business educators would agree with a statement by Benjamin R. Haynes, President of The Wheeler Business College, Birmingham, Alabama, that

Too little attention has been paid to the specific training of boys and girls to enter specific clerical jobs. This gap exists in spite of the fact that census figures show that there are more general clerical office employees than other office groups.

It would seem appropriate, therefore, to establish at least one course whose content should be based upon the findings of job analyses. This course would serve as an introductory or initial course for the specific preparation of those many students who will, at least temporarily, go into business via "general office" positions.

SELECTION OF CLERICAL TRAINEES

While the problem of selection of students is important in bookkeeping and shorthand, it is even more important that competent students be selected in the field of clerical training. Unfortunately there is a tendency for students who are dropped from shorthand, typing, and bookkeeping, or from academic work, to take the clerical training program if it is given. This tendency to use clerical training as a dumping ground area is most unsound, for the less able are precisely the people who do not have the qualities or the ability in the first place that will make them successful clerks. A school cannot achieve miracles in the field of clerical training any more than in any other area.

Nevertheless, school can do a great deal. For example, untrained clerical workers are likely to use very inefficient methods of stuffing envelopes. The teacher should see to it not only that the students know the right procedure, but also that they have sufficient practice to actually use it. This is also true of methods of sorting, methods of arranging

material, methods of taking care of incoming calls, and dozens of similar problems. Clerical work also involves the use of applied common sense in dealing with office procedures.

In most typing classes, speed and straight copy work are emphasized. Most of the typing done by general clerical workers involves a skill beyond this, for example, inserting enclosures, filling in forms, typing form letters, typing envelopes, taking care of the duplication of billing, typing and retyping rough drafts, taking dictation at the machine, and tabulation.

James R. Meehan, of Hunter College, New York, in a personal comment on this problem of selection and training says that

Clerical practice is too often only designed for the student who lacks ability to master either shorthand or bookkeeping. Too often this person lacks the intelligence to be employed or if employed, to be advanced, in an office position. The course itself often overlaps the secretarial practice course and the office practice course. A term of filing, a term at calculating machines, duplicating machines, transcribing machines, and possibly bookkeeping machines are usually included in the course. The textbook information presented is the material presented in secretarial practice but in milder form. Students prepare for such jobs as messenger, typist, file clerk, etc.

There is a vast difference between the clerical practice taught in school and the abilities needed by the general office worker on the job.

CLERICAL TRAINING AND MACHINE TRAINING

There has been a tendency to confuse clerical training with office-machine training. It is true that many clerks in offices must be skilled in the use of office machines, but those aspects of clerical training that can be best taught in the secondary school usually do not require a high degree of skill in office machines. Undoubtedly, in some schools in large metropolitan areas, there is justification for teaching one or more specific office machines to a high level of skill performance.

In one city with a population of around 200,000, rather metropolitan in character, the needs of the community for competently skilled office machine workers is amply met by those trained in two company schools and three classes in machine instruction in the vocational high school. Even with these rather limited facilities, plus the partial training given in private business schools and the acquaintanceship training given in secondary schools, in addition to a few trained persons migrating in

from other communities, there has frequently been a surplus of such workers

There were in 1960 well over 300,000 office machine operators including automation workers. While this does indicate a considerable relative increase in the proportion of such workers since 1930, when there were only 36,000, the number still is a small proportion of those in business occupations or even in clerical occupations. Included in this category were operators of such devices as

Adding machines	Check writing machines	Mimeographs
Addressing machines	Checking machines	Multiliths
Amplifying machines	Comptometers	Posting machines
Billing machines	Computing machines	Recordak
Bookkeeping machines	Embossing machines	Spint duplicators
Calculating machines	Folding machines	Microfilm filing
Canceling machines	Graphotypes	Sorting machines
Card punching machines	Inserting machines	Tabulating machines
Card-sorter machines	Key punch	Ticket machines
	Letter openers	Verifying machines

By far the greater part of time spent by clerical workers at office machines, other than the typewriter, is devoted to operating key punch machines, adding listing machines, calculating machines, statement machines, addressing machines, name plating machines, and dictating machines, in the order mentioned. Duplicating machine operation is much less frequent because this work is often done outside the office by a specialized service bureau.

This list of office machine operators is, as can be seen, quite complete. This indicates rather conclusively that there is little justification for elaborate specialized training in all the machines used. Comparatively few use the machine on a full time basis. Many thousands more, no doubt, use some of these machines incidentally in their other office activities. This would not justify detailed instruction in the use of these machines. Familiarity and some acquaintanceship with such devices as adding, addressing, calculating, canceling, and duplicating machines would be of use in acquainting students with office situations. Special training in such machines should, however, be left to the schools of companies producing the machines, a few private business schools, and to full time vocational schools in metropolitan communities.

CLERICAL TRAINING AS BASIC TO ALL BUSINESS EDUCATION

While it is true that in a sense those classified as specialized clerical workers are not stenographers, typists, bookkeepers, distributive workers, or managers, yet it is also true that all these types of business workers do much general office work. It is therefore frequently suggested that all students in business take a basic clerical training course.

Jessie Graham, former supervisor of business education, Los Angeles, has prepared the following description of the course and its functions as presented in Los Angeles:

The culminating course of the clerical curriculum is clerical practice, to be followed in the ideal program by apprenticeship experience in business. Clerical practice is designed to prepare general office clerks for the types of positions that will be available to graduates upon completion of the curriculum. The content of the course is planned and revised from time to time as the result of contacts between the teachers and the business community staffed by the local school.

In a large school, it is possible to offer specialized 'practice' courses—stenographic office practice for the stenographers, business practice for the bookkeepers, store practice for the salesmen, and clerical practice for the general clerical students. These flexible courses are based upon student interests and business community demands.

The prerequisites for clerical practice are successful experience in elementary typewriting, elementary bookkeeping, and business arithmetic. Other courses may be required if available: general business training, business English, business law.

The clerical practice course is planned in short units, so that it may be tailor made to suit the needs of pupils and the probable future demands of the business community. The basic clerical skills should be acquired by all pupils, but if individual pupils desire additional training in filing, operation of certain business machines, specialized record keeping, or preparation for civil service examinations, provisions for such training should be made.

Specialization in the clerical practice course does not imply training in the unique practices of individual business concerns. That training should be done by business unless co-operative arrangements have been made. Then, too, specialization should not result in placing the student in the too-narrow limits of a blind alley job. In other words, the graduate should have more than one string to his bow.

There is one pitfall to be avoided with diplomacy if possible, in times of

shortage of clerical help. In some schools, there are demands upon the clerical practice class to perform so many clerical duties for the school that there is no time to give a well rounded course. Whenever possible, the teacher should insist that pupils not be taken out of class to run errands or to perform work that can be done by other pupils during free periods.

Ideally, pupils who have completed the clerical practice course should be able to perform satisfactorily on the appropriate sections of the National Clerical Ability Tests or the entrance tests given by Government or private business.

TYPES OF WORK INVOLVED

Analyses of types of work undertaken by general clerks reveal that the duties usually involve recording, filing, duplicating, and distributing, or various combinations of these tasks. It is incumbent upon the school to train students who are likely to obtain clerical positions in the skills most frequently needed by such workers, that is, they should learn a considerable number of office duties, either on a mastery or on an acquaintanceship level.

Arithmetical Skills Needed Students who are prospective clerks should be more adept in fundamental arithmetic than other students since most of them will use arithmetic constantly in their daily work. The arithmetical training given these students need not be highly diversified, but the simple processes should be thoroughly mastered.

Students should also be familiar with the adding and computation machines now on the market. This learning may be kept on an acquaintanceship level unless the school is reasonably certain that the student will obtain work in which he will actually operate such machines.

Communication Skills Needed Communication is a fundamental aspect of most clerical occupations. Prospective clerical workers, therefore, should master the fundamentals of English, particularly the written word; they should be excellent spellers, they should write a legible and rapid hand and they should also be skillful typists, although not necessarily so proficient as prospective stenographers.

Training in the use of devices for facilitating communication, such as dictating machines, and various forms of duplicating machines, should be included in the clerical curriculum. Such training, however, need not be given on a mastery level unless the student is reasonably sure of obtaining a job requiring the extensive use of these machines.

Bookkeeping Skills Needed Since general clerical occupations involve recording, a one- or two-semester course in general record keeping may be required. This course should not emphasize the abstract phases of bookkeeping, but should supply an understanding of the common business forms and the fundamentals of bookkeeping as used in the modern office. The newer techniques in record keeping should be emphasized particularly. Students who will enter clerical occupations should be trained in recording and posting, even at the expense of the more formal technical processes, such as making opening and closing entries, preparing work sheets, and so forth.

Typing Skills Needed A great deal of the time of the nonspecialized clerk in business offices is devoted to typing various forms. The kind of instruction given in the usual typing class is not especially adapted to training the student to undertake the typing activities of the general clerk. For instance, numerous carbon copies are frequently required, and each copy must be neat and correct. A great part of office typing is not straight copy work. Typists should be taught that it is their job to check accuracy of English, clarity of sentences, figures, references, dates, and the like. This can be done well through problem solving exercises in the clerical training class.

One of the more typical activities of the general clerk is that of filling in forms. In many cases, these forms have been set up with little realization of the nature of typewritten work. Nevertheless, the general clerk must type information in these spaces and must, therefore, be able to realign the machine. The attainment of this skill is not acquired merely by explanation or by one or two exercises in the typing room. The general clerical training program should give much opportunity for experience in this type of work. The work of general clerks is not measured in terms of 10 minute copying tests, but in the ability to produce a large amount of usable material in a given day. Therefore, the general clerical instructor needs to build up this ability for students who may have learned formalized typing but who have not yet acquired the skill to produce for long periods of time.

The general clerk should know how to check for accuracy the material that has been typed. Frequently, he serves as a proofreader. Typing teachers have been particularly lax in developing this skill. Usually the teacher checks the papers, or if the student checks the papers himself, he is not adequately encouraged to find errors. Students must be taught

not only to read for formal repetition of the material copied but also for its basic common sense. Proper clerical training requires practice in doing jobs until they are done in accordance with best procedures. The point of view of the office superior should be kept in mind.

Penmanship Clerical workers must still fill in a great many forms by hand. Often the forms are too small to be filled in on the typewriter. This holds true in spite of the recently publicized technique of using a pleat in a sheet of paper for easily inserting notations on small forms. In modern business, the need is not so much for a formalized, flowing handwriting as the ability to make notations neatly and legibly rather than artistically. The development of this skill does not involve the setting up of formalized penmanship drills, but a specific study of the weaknesses of the student's handwriting. There must then be a constant insistence in maintaining an adequate standard of legibility. There is no doubt that the bookkeeping teacher can greatly help in this process, but it should be fortified and made more general in the clerical training program. This is especially true in developing habits of neatness, cleanliness of copy, and so forth.

Filing Putting records away and finding them again is a basic activity of the business office, and it is one of the major duties of the general clerk. Filing involves not only the ability to put things away alphabetically, numerically, or even by Soundex, but an understanding of what needs to be filed, the processes used for orderly filing, the preparation of materials to be filed, and, most important, of course, the ability to find records after they have been filed. Far too much of the usual high school instruction in filing has been devoted to alphabetizing. Sorting, coding, indexing, cross-referencing, and a fundamental understanding of the nature and purpose of file records are even more important. By the time the student gets into the clerical training class, he has a fairly good understanding of alphabetizing, but is lacking in skill in these other aspects of filing. Yet, teachers often continue to devote all their attention to alphabetizing and ignore the very elements in which the students need more actual job instruction.

Other Skills The student should, if possible, also be given some training in salesmanship, inasmuch as the general clerk frequently undertakes duties directly, or indirectly, connected with selling.

Equipped with the varied knowledge that may be obtained through the training just outlined, a boy or girl will be able to choose his spe-

cialization and also fit into one of many positions on a relief basis when the opportunity arises

CLERICAL TRAINING FOR THE NONACADEMIC STUDENT

Much has been written about whether clerical training should be limited to the less intellectual, to the more intellectual, or given to all who can profit. Anyone who can profit by clerical training should be encouraged to take it. As Helen Reynolds has pointed out:

To the degree that [slow learners] can be absorbed into office occupations and hence can be helped by training for such occupations, clerical education should be provided. Some types of machine work, some kinds of non-machine clerical work involving form filling in, checking, and record keeping will suit the needs of this group. Not the least valuable outcome of this kind of program in the life adjustment sense is the feeling of accomplishment that can result to the student. He may for the first time in his life in school actually experience success—he becomes interested—he finds he can learn things, and he may become, as a result, a productive citizen instead of a delinquent—even a potential criminal.³

One word about the difference between the slow learner and the rapid learner—the difference is shown in this terminology—the slow learner does not learn differently—he learns more slowly.⁴

The nonacademically minded student often needs supplemental learnings in the fundamental processes and training in the simple skills of the office. The clerical program is well suited to providing this training.

The more intellectual student might often profit from clerical training. The fact of the matter is, however, that he can rarely be persuaded to take such training. In most cases, moreover, the need is less dire. Such students will rapidly acquire the basic processes on the job and can often be encouraged to take office and secretarial practice as integrating courses based upon basic training in shorthand or bookkeeping. Having studied either or both of these well-knit specializations with success, they can profit much by taking a course that integrates this special skill with the general activities of the office. In such a situation

³ Helen Reynolds, "Some Problems in Clerical Education," *38th Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings*, April, 1951, *University of Pennsylvania Bulletin*, p. 291.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 298.

they will rapidly acquire the more simple office skills and processes, and achieve high competency in beginning office work

James Mechan believes that the course should be offered at different levels with different skill learnings for those of varied ability. He is of the opinion that

Training should be based on careful job analyses of the specific job and taught in terms of the operations needed in these jobs. Training for the non-academic would be justified for the operation of the key punch tabulating machine. This machine requires skill similar in dexterity to that required for a typist—hence he should also have training in typing. Key driven calculating machine operation is another skill of use to the non academic type of student. The key driven calculating machine operator should be well grounded in arithmetic, write figures clearly, read them accurately, and be especially well trained in the use of decimals.

Another field for which Mechan thinks training is justified for those with less intellectual ability is switchboard operation. It is assumed that this training would be given on a rather elementary level, but quite thoroughly, so that the student could perform well on the job.

For the middle-level group, Mechan would include transcription-machine operation, filing, recording, and general typing. For the high level group, he would offer bookkeeping and billing machine operation, tabulating machine operation, statistical typing, front-office hotel service, and cashing.

Nevertheless, in actual practice, clerical training as a special area compared with office and secretarial training has proved to be a course taken by nonintellectual students, and teachers have not been successful in getting those who are really successful in other courses to take clerical training. Therefore, until such students are willing, or can be persuaded, to take clerical training, it must necessarily be geared to those who do take the course.

SUBJECT MATTER OF CLERICAL TRAINING

In the study by Thelma Potter (Mrs. Boynton),⁵ the major types of nonspecialized clerical activities were

⁵ "An Analysis of the Work of General Clerical Workers," *Bulletin* No. 37 National Association of Business Teacher Training Distribution (December, 1935)
p. 26

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Total Hours</i>	<i>Per Cent of Total Hours</i>
Classifying and sorting	184 906	40 2
Checking	96 268	20 9
Filling in forms by hand	62 857	13 7
Stuffing and sealing envelopes	47 812	10 4
Collating and stapling	45 454	9 9
Substituting for cashier	8 000	1 7
Relieving secretary	7 045	1 5
Answering customer's complaints over telephone	5 045	1 1
Attending special meeting	1 000	3
Ordering supplies	818	2
Folding machine operation	409	1
	459 614	100 0

E. W. Alexander, of Hadley Technical High School, several years ago suggested that certain operations should be taught in basic clerical courses. They are still valid.

Typing envelopes	Opening and sorting letters
Writing checks	Separating mail by cities and states
Preparing vouchers	Transcribing cylinders
Making invoices	Preparing addressing plates
Verifying items	Making addressing envelopes
Posting to ledger or other items	Hand addressing envelopes
Duplicating sheets by any process	Collating, straightening, and criss-crossing
Auditing sales tickets	Filing orders
Filing letters by any method	
Making up job tickets	

Effective training in the little things in daily office work is the responsibility of all business teachers and clerical trainers in particular.

In addition, Alexander feels that

There are certain desirable general objectives that are more difficult to measure, yet important enough to claim the attention of clerical teachers.

Working to meet dead line	Organizing work to prevent waste motion
Carrying on in spite of interruptions	Completing a day's work without being exhausted
Acquiring knowledge of system	
Planning work	

quires the presentation of a unified program. Students should not be permitted to undertake such a program without preliminary training in the use of the various machines by either the battery or the rotation plan. The tendency of many schools to graduate prospective clerical workers after subjecting them solely to a program of rotation instruction is unwise. Integrated office-practice instruction alone can articulate the school and the job. If co-operative training cannot be instituted, the teaching should be made as realistic as possible.

In actual practice, the usual clerical practice class will not use any of these plans to the exclusion of the others, and in every clerical training class, no matter what the method used, some opportunity for the integration of these skills is necessary.

As has been pointed out, the number of specialized office-machine workers is only a fraction of all general clerical workers. Nevertheless, many clerical workers use many types of office machines as incidental aspects of their total service. It is all the more important, therefore, that they be given abundant practice in using office machines as a part of the total program of their office training, rather than specialized training on any one of the machines with little relationship to what preceded or what future use is to be made of the machine production.

CAN MANAGERIAL TRAINING BE GIVEN IN CLERICAL COURSES?

Students who have potential managerial abilities can be given some training toward future managerial service and some for minor managerial service within a year or two after completion of school training. At the high school level, managerial training should be given, not for the purpose of making potential managers out of preservice learners, but as a basis for giving them a better understanding of how business functions.

Superior students, however, should not be allowed to assume that merely because they have become familiar with managerial experiences in their clerical training, they can obtain some kind of executive position immediately upon or soon after graduation. Managerial training is uniquely the function of the collegiate school of business and more especially of the graduate school of business. The high school administrator of business training must be careful to avoid letting students assume that real managerial training can be given on a high school level.

*INFLUENCE OF AUTOMATION ON CLERICAL WORKERS
AND THEIR TRAINING*

There was a belief during the early 1960s that the automatization of many clerical processes would greatly reduce the need for clerks. In practice it has been found with rare exception that the clerical force tends to expand as integrated data processing is installed. No matter how rapidly data are fed into the data processing apparatus (1) they still require much effort in being collected and extreme accuracy in feeding, (2) this need often demands a check on the checking process for the very speed of the processing in various forms means that errors can multiply to the point of the ridiculous, (3) moreover, output can usually not be used in the form in which it is presented by the processing and needs considerable interpretation and revamping to be made useful to the managerial consumer, (4) the speed with which data are made available makes them far more useful and therefore more is done with them than with usual data about business which are often a month to six months old by the time they reach the executive, and (5) the very existence of data processing by automation requires that far more raw data be collected and that far more variations in processing be undertaken.

Theoretical bases also indicate an increase in clerical employment resulting in automation. Business has been making judgments on far too few facts because they did not have them, because they cost too much to get, or because they were too old when tabulated. Now that more facts are obtainable, businessmen should require more data, and that is just what they are doing as soon as their awareness of their use becomes clear.

If there is a need for changing the form of instruction in clerical training in high school as a result of automation, the evidence is not yet on hand. All it shows is that we need to teach better what we have always tried to teach. Key punch operation is easy to learn—it takes 30 to 40 hours of instruction at a very expensive machine. Most businesses do not even consider the possibility of asking the schools to do this training. Programming and wiring for automated processing is probably out of the question in the high school or for that matter in college, except in the most unusual college. The variations and rapid changes in the process make it necessary to give this training in on the job training pro-

TABLE 20 *Clerical Curriculum of the Philadelphia Schools*

<i>10th year</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>Periods</i>
English	3 & 4	5
Biology	1 & 2	5
*American history or business & consumer mathematics	1 & 2	5
Clerical practice	1 & 2	5
Physical education	3 & 4	2
Health education	3 & 4	1
Total		<u>23</u>
Minors and/or a fifth major may be added to total		27 to 30
<i>11th Year</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>Periods</i>
English	5 & 6	5
*American history	1 & 2 or 3 & 4	5
Clerical practice	3 & 4	5
Typewriting	1 & 2	5
†Retail selling	1 & 2	5
†Commercial geography	1 & 2	
†Bookkeeping	1 & 2	
†Stenography	1 & 2	
Physical education	5 & 6	2
Health education	5 & 6	1
Total		<u>28</u>
Minor may be added to total		30
<i>12th Year</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>Periods</i>
English	7 & 8	5
*American history or business & consumer mathematics	3 & 4	5
Office practice	1 & 2	5
Typewriting	3 & 4	5
†Retail selling	3 & 4	5
†Business economics & commercial law	1 & 1	
†Bookkeeping	3 & 4	
†Stenography	3 & 4	
Physical education	7 & 8	2
Health education	7 & 8	1
Total		<u>28</u>
Minor may be added to total		30

* One year of "Business and Consumer Mathematics" must be taken and passed. This may be either in the tenth year or the twelfth year depending on the placement of American History

† Select one

grams That is one reason why this type of training has become so flourishing

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1 How many clerical workers are there in the United States? Describe and delimit the occupation of a clerk

2 What are some of the difficulties in giving general clerical training in high school? On the post high school level?

3 What are the problems of differentiating secretarial training, office practice, and clerical training?

4 Indicate the methods by which a better selection of clerical trainees may be obtained

5 To what extent can specialized clerical training be given in secondary schools? In post high school, company, and private schools?

6 List the advantages and disadvantages of a general clerical curriculum

7 How accurate do you think are the data given in Table 19? Why? What are the implications for the entire business program in the secondary school? What are the implications for a clerical specialization? Analyze the source data from which this table was taken if at all possible

8 Differentiate clerical work as a finishing course for some special form of business training and as a goal in itself

9 Study the syllabi of several courses in clerical training Evaluate them and give the basis for your evaluation

10 Study a general clerical curriculum for a high school with which you are familiar Evaluate it according to suggestions made in this chapter and in the references in Selected Readings Give the basis for your evaluation

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See also the February issues of the *UBEA Forum* which are usually devoted to clerical and office-machine training

CHAPTER XXI

Training for Distributive Occupations

DISTRIBUTIVE OCCUPATIONS rank third in the number of persons employed. Over eight million persons are employed in some form of selling or distribution. There are more than one and one-half million independent store owners in the United States. As American economy becomes more expert in the production of goods, consumers are asking for comparable expertness in the manner in which goods are presented to them. Slick sales talk is no longer sufficient. Merchandise and services must be easily obtainable and must serve their purposes. Consumers want to know how to use goods, how to make them last as long as possible, and how to repair them. Improved distribution techniques will require more workers, and even more important, better trained workers.

In an economy of free enterprise, sales promotion is the dynamo that stimulates and motivates economic activity. In an economy that is completely planned, the slide rule and the whip are substitutes. The extent to which sales promotion fails to be effective will determine the extent to which the whip and the slide rule may be used as substitutes. Unfortunately, there always have been some salesmen who have looked upon their work as a scheme for hoodwinking the consumer by foisting upon him something that he does not want and cannot use after he has bought it. Such activity is not selling, in the true sense of the word, but chicanery. Real selling is the art of making people aware of what they want and helping them to buy such articles intelligently. It is not based upon sympathy buying. It is based upon rendering service.

The salesman therefore must

Know his product That means he must know his company, what its policies are, and how its products or services can be used by the prospective customer

Know his customer He must know his customer's problems and help him solve them. He must be able to analyze the often conflicting desires of the consumer and help him meet these economic desires in an orderly sequence

Know his market A good salesman discovers those who can use his product or service, the nature of the competition he will face, and how general economic conditions will influence the customers' ability to purchase the particular commodity

Have fundamental integrity Of course, the salesman is interested in obtaining orders and in making a profit. However, if his competitor can render a measurably better service, he may suggest the competitor's commodity, for in the long run, impartial service is likely to secure the customer's faith.

In the narrow sense of the word, selling involves getting other people to pay money for goods or services that you have available. In the broad sense, any process of persuading people to undertake a line of action that you know is desirable is a sales process. The teacher who persuades his students to learn is selling education, and the parent who intelligently persuades his son to stay in school is doing the same.

Selling runs the gamut of human activity. Some aspects of it are among the lowest paid services, and others are among the most highly paid. The various forms of selling require abilities in every conceivable phase of human interest and knowledge, and in every possible method of influencing people. Salesmen work in small shops and in large department stores, they serve behind counters and call on the customers in their homes. They work for others and are individual enterprisers. They work on a flat salary basis, or for a commission, or for all kinds of combinations of these two.

FAULTY DISTRIBUTION PROCEDURES

High pressure advertising and selling flourish because the public has not been educated to cope with their subtle influences, but probably even more so because distributors do not realize that there are better

ways of serving their customers. Much extravagant advertising and selling based on false claims is ineffective and results in far less distribution and consumer satisfaction than sounder techniques for distribution would.

Among the reasons for waste in selling are the following:

1 *Duplication of Sales Effort* Goods pass through the hands of too many intermediaries. In many cases the wholesaler spends half of his money persuading the retailer to buy, and the other half goes only into the real service of storage, delivery, and breaking lots into smaller units. Consequently, a second layer of selling is added to the ultimate cost of goods.

2 *Multiplicity of Outlets* Competition is the spice of business, but will ruin it when carried to excess. While adequate competition results in better service to the consumer, too many retail outlets increase the cost. Hundreds of thousands of retailers do pitifully small business.

Operating expenses are out of all proportion to the sales of such small shops. Numerous studies show that distribution takes over 50 per cent of the total amount paid by the consumer for goods and services. There is little doubt that improvements in distribution have not kept pace with improvements in production. Some of these increased costs of distribution are the fault of the consumer as well as that of the merchandiser, for example, demands for increased services and fancy packaging, unpredictable and futile changes in fashion, carelessness in buying, and excess credit purchasing.

3 *Services Rendered* Too often retailers render services to consumers that are of little import to them. The consumer would be more interested in better merchandise at a lower price.

4 *Multiplicity of Brands* It has been estimated that there are 4,500 brands of canned corn, this is many times more than is necessary for good competition. It confuses the consumer and increases sales cost, for additional promotional effort is often made to push these special brands.

5 *Careless Selling* Careless selling often results in returned goods. Part of the responsibility for this rests with the consumer. However, the vendor is also at fault, for all too often he is too anxious to dispose of his goods and not interested in the consumer's use of the article.

6 *Lack of Standardization* No one wishes the American people to

be put into uniforms. Variety in dress, housing, clothing, and entertainment is sought by all. There are, however, many goods and services in which variety is not only unnecessary aesthetically, but even undesirable. Yet it seems that it is just in such commodities that standardization is most neglected.

7 *Consumer Ignorance* Ignorance, the basic weakness of consumers, is often the fault of the distributor, since he often wishes to keep the consumer uninformed so that he can more easily mold his thinking. In some cases, the advertisements in the most reputable magazines deliberately confuse and mislead the consumer.

If the merchandiser is to render a real service, however, he should participate in redirecting and correcting the habits of the consumer, rather than furthering his poor buying practices. To this end, the distributor can provide better descriptive and informative labeling, he should determine more adequately just what the consumer really wants, rather than what he thinks he wants due to the distributor's suggestion. Such service will require a corps of distributive workers far better trained than those who practice at present. The school has a major contribution to make not only in training the consumer to be a better buyer, but also in training the merchant to be a better vendor.

CAUSES OF FAILURE IN RETAILING

Frequent changes occur in both the ownership and the personnel of retail concerns. Each year, nearly 30 per cent of the proprietors are new. Less than 10 per cent of those who enter distributive occupations actually succeed.

The majority of failures are due to personal incompetence of one kind or another, particularly that caused by inexperience. Specific causes for failures are allowing excessive credit, accepting excessive credit, unwise buying, poor selling techniques, poor location, indifference to customer needs, misrepresentation, sometimes because of ignorance, sometimes deliberate, ignorance of retailing techniques, of merchandise, of accounting, and the like.

PROBLEMS OF DISTRIBUTIVE TRAINING

Many department stores and some large chain stores train their own employees, but most small independent retailers cannot provide the kind

of training that might help to solve the problems of distribution. Hence, some agency must be found to assume this task for them. Herein lies an opportunity for the school to provide trained employees for small business.

Yet only about 100,000 students are receiving distributive training in the secondary schools, whereas almost a million pupils are studying shorthand and bookkeeping. Notwithstanding the fact that high school graduates have much greater opportunities for employment in distributive occupations than in shorthand, bookkeeping, or general clerical work, the courses in these subjects are crowded, while distributive training has been comparatively neglected.

REASONS FOR UNDEREMPHASIS ON DISTRIBUTIVE TRAINING

One of the major reasons for the underemphasis on distributive training is the inadequate preparation of many of the teachers who give instruction in selling and kindred subjects. If teachers lack experience, they are not likely to offer successful courses. The instructor's inability to make the training in merchandising practical, standardized, and significant is the chief reason for the failure of such training in many communities.

Moreover, many courses do not deal with salesmanship but with practical psychology. Psychology should be taught to all students rather than only to those who are interested in salesmanship. Practical, or business, psychology should be frankly labeled as such, and not disguised as a course in salesmanship or distributive training.

Another reason for the inadequacy of distributive training is the failure of schools to enlist the co-operation of selling organizations, such as department stores, in giving salesmanship courses. Without co-operative training, distributive education is often ineffective. As the funds made available by the Federal Government under the George-Barden Act can be used in secondary schools only on a co-operative basis, no help for the secondary-school prevocational distributive program can be expected from this source.

Perhaps, in the final analysis, the fundamental weakness of distributive education is the inability of teachers to make the work attractive, although there are abundant opportunities for doing so. As long as many

be put into uniforms Variety in dress, housing, clothing, and entertainment is sought by all There are, however, many goods and services in which variety is not only unnecessary aesthetically, but even undesirable Yet it seems that it is just in such commodities that standardization is most neglected

7 *Consumer Ignorance* Ignorance, the basic weakness of consumers, is often the fault of the distributor, since he often wishes to keep the consumer uninformed so that he can more easily mold his thinking In some cases, the advertisements in the most reputable magazines deliberately confuse and mislead the consumer

If the merchandiser is to render a real service, however, he should participate in redirecting and correcting the habits of the consumer, rather than furthering his poor buying practices To this end, the distributor can provide better descriptive and informative labeling, he should determine more adequately just what the consumer really wants, rather than what he thinks he wants due to the distributor's suggestion Such service will require a corps of distributive workers far better trained than those who practice at present The school has a major contribution to make not only in training the consumer to be a better buyer, but also in training the merchant to be a better vendor

CAUSES OF FAILURE IN RETAILING

Frequent changes occur in both the ownership and the personnel of retail concerns Each year, nearly 30 per cent of the proprietors are new Less than 10 per cent of those who enter distributive occupations actually succeed

The majority of failures are due to personal incompetence of one kind or another, particularly that caused by inexperience Specific causes for failures are allowing excessive credit, accepting excessive credit, unwise buying, poor selling techniques, poor location, indifference to customer needs, misrepresentation, sometimes because of ignorance, sometimes deliberate, ignorance of retailing techniques, of merchandise, of accounting, and the like

PROBLEMS OF DISTRIBUTIVE TRAINING

Many department stores and some large chain stores train their own employees, but most small independent retailers cannot provide the kind

of training that might help to solve the problems of distribution. Hence, some agency must be found to assume this task for them. Herein lies an opportunity for the school to provide trained employees for small business.

Yet only about 100,000 students are receiving distributive training in the secondary schools, whereas almost a million pupils are studying shorthand and bookkeeping. Notwithstanding the fact that high school graduates have much greater opportunities for employment in distributive occupations than in shorthand, bookkeeping, or general clerical work, the courses in these subjects are crowded, while distributive training has been comparatively neglected.

REASONS FOR UNDEREMPHASIS ON DISTRIBUTIVE TRAINING

One of the major reasons for the underemphasis on distributive training is the inadequate preparation of many of the teachers who give instruction in selling and kindred subjects. If teachers lack experience, they are not likely to offer successful courses. The instructor's inability to make the training in merchandising practical, standardized, and significant is the chief reason for the failure of such training in many communities.

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Perhaps, in the final analysis, the fundamental weakness of distributive education is the inability of teachers to make the work attractive, although there are abundant opportunities for doing so. As long as many

teachers present selling courses in a cut and dried manner, students will be unwilling to elect them, although intrinsically they should be the most profitable in the curriculum. In those communities where teachers do make the work realistic, retailing training has been highly successful.

DIFFICULTIES IN OFFERING DISTRIBUTIVE TRAINING

There are difficulties in offering distributive training, desirable and necessary as such training is. First, the field cannot be charted easily. A textbook salesman, for example, requires skill and knowledge different from that needed by the lingerie salesman. Furthermore, selling is only one phase of a general field. In a large department store, for instance, less than 50 per cent of the total number of employees are behind the counter. The variety of available distributive jobs are classified in the list on page 345.

It is difficult to determine the specific ability required in salesmanship. In shorthand and bookkeeping, on the other hand, the techniques can be described and measured and consequently presented in tangible form to students.

When the precise steps involved in the selling of a particular piece of merchandise are listed, it is found that the person is following a formal or theoretical, rather than a realistic, presentation of the sales process. In addition to knowledge of the article or service, selling involves attitudes more than specific ability.

According to the description given in the United States Census List of Occupations, a salesperson is one who

Displays, explains, and sells merchandise to customers on sales floor (1) ascertains make, type, size, or design, and quantity of merchandise ordered by customer and approximate price customer is willing to pay, (2) displays merchandise and assists customer to make a selection by suggestions and explanations emphasizes the chief selling point of the article, be it quality style, durability, popularity, utility, taste, appearance, freshness, or price, may tell or show the customer how to use the article, (3) writes out sales slip or fills out a sales contract for the customer's signature (in some establishments no sales slip is used for cash sales) [a cash register slip may be used in place of a sales slip] (4) receives payment or secures credit authorization and gives wrapped article to customer or arranges for its delivery, (5) cares for stock on sales floor placing new merchandise on shelves, racks, or

stands, keeping stock orderly and dusted during the day, requisitioning replacements from stockroom as necessary or informing buyer or department head of shortages as they occur, and covering stock or removing it from counter at night, (6) writes out accommodation slip when customer returns merchandise for alteration or repair, indicating disposition of the merchandise, (7) takes periodic inventories of stock. Classifications are established according to product sold, as salesperson, books, salesperson, garden supplies, salesperson, jewelry.

This is the type of occupation for which training is generally planned in secondary schools under the term distributive training. However, there are many more selling occupations in which people serve such as

Advertising agent	Newsboy
Auctioneer	Purchasing agent
Buyer	Retail manager
Canvasser and solicitor	Sales manager
Commission man	Shopper
Credit man	Telephone solicitor
Demonstrator	Vendor
Floorman, floor walker	Wholesaler
Huckster and peddler	

Many more specific occupations and hundreds of subclassifications are given. It must be recognized that training for most of these cannot and should not be given. Some require no formal training, and in others, training can be given only on a promotional basis. Furthermore, those for which training might be given in high school often do not fit into the typical classroom picture. They cannot be taught to large classes, or from texts, or by a teacher sitting at his desk, and just talking about the subject. Actual work projects must be carried out.

HOW MUCH DISTRIBUTIVE TRAINING IN HIGH SCHOOL?

It is clearly impossible for the high school to give specific training in most distributive occupations. This level of school must confine itself to preservice goals and supply the fundamental knowledge of retailing that is useful to anyone who will engage in a distributive occupation. Transfer of most skills to specific job situations is difficult. Nevertheless, a limited amount of marginal vocational utility can be found in distributive courses, particularly when they are taught by teachers with broad

experience in merchandising who present the material realistically

Edward Reich, author of sales texts and chairman of the Department of Salesmanship and Merchandising, Central Commercial High School, New York, makes the personal comment that

In view of the fact that high school boys and girls do not know exactly what fields of merchandising they will enter, it is desirable that they be trained in general merchandising principles with attention to specific details that characterize all types of merchandising operations, such as relations with customers, with fellow employees and the employer, an understanding of the basic principles of merchandising control, and the over-all marketing picture. Of course that does not eliminate at all my point of view that the essential element in merchandising instruction is commodity study or a knowledge of consumer goods. I still don't want the stress to be on selling tricks. I prefer that the salesman understand consumer needs on the one hand and consumer goods on the other hand and act as a link between the two. I prefer to see him the agent of the consumer amidst the plethora of goods more than anything else.

RATIONALIZATION OF THE COURSES IN SALESMANSHIP AND ADVERTISING

As teachers realize that the general preservice salesmanship courses offered in the public schools have little specific job value, they justify them on other grounds, such as personal use and informational need.

Salesmanship, therefore, tends to become a course in general principles, which is only of marginal benefit to the student who must actually go out and sell. He needs specific training in selling. On the other hand, the general student who takes the salesmanship course for its consumer values must go through a great deal of technical material that is of little value to him.

Advertising courses present the same problems. Does advertising, now taught in a considerable number of high schools as a combination course known as salesmanship and advertising, have vocational utility? A technical treatment of this subject is scarcely justified in the high school. The number of students who select advertising as a primary field is so small that the technical aspects of the subject should be taught only in large metropolitan high schools. It is true that many people engaged

in other occupations (for example, salesmanship) make incidental use of advertising, but the degree of incidental use of technical advertising skill has not been determined. To meet the need for such incidental use, a general knowledge of advertising can be imparted in salesmanship or other courses.

Undoubtedly, much of the information disseminated in courses in salesmanship and advertising is useful to the student as a consumer. But if these subjects are offered for the purpose of consumer education, they should be labeled accordingly, rather than be surrounded by fictitious occupational objectives. The confusion of consumer values and job values defeats the purposes for both consumer education and retail sales training.

Distributive Education in Smaller Schools Small and medium sized high schools cannot offer more than a one- or two semester course in salesmanship. Unless the school has a teacher with specific training or a special interest in the work, even a limited program is of doubtful merit. To be sure, in some schools the unusual ability of a teacher and the genuine willingness of store managers to co-operate will make a more extensive program feasible.

All things considered, the place for successful training for salesmanship is in the large commercial high schools or in full-time vocational schools, because they can better afford to specialize in this type of instruction.

NEED FOR MARKETING COURSES

Some teachers regard courses in marketing as a phase of distributive training. The need for marketing education for all students is apparent, while some students also derive vocational utility from it. But a teacher of marketing who tries to achieve both purposes in one course usually finds himself in a dilemma. The result is a serious loss in teaching efficiency. In the attempt to attain both aims, the teacher does not give adequate attention to either one.

A logical solution is to offer separate courses for the two groups. Some training in marketing from the consumer's point of view should be available to all students, since everybody comes in contact with marketing problems in one form or another. One or more specialized courses built upon the basic course, with specific vocational objectives,

should be available for students who expect to enter distributive or merchandising occupations upon graduation. In this way, the particular aims of both groups could be met more satisfactorily.

CO-OPERATIVE SALES TRAINING

It has been widely stated that no form of preservice training for distributive occupation can be successful. This point of view is extreme, because it assumes that no vicarious training can have any value and that only if operations are exactly identical will there be any transfer of training. Nevertheless it remains true that all too frequently preservice training is a shoddy imitation of the actual sales process. To meet this deficiency, wide-awake sales trainers have developed co-operative part-time programs in merchandising so as to give students valid experience to correlate with their school learning. Co-operative education is considered in detail in Chapter XII.

LARGE CITY SCHOOLS OFFER BEST OPPORTUNITIES FOR DISTRIBUTIVE TRAINING

A number of the large cities in the United States offer excellent opportunities for extensive distributive training. Federal aid is available under the provisions of the George-Bardeau Act, provided a co-operative program can be instituted. Even where co-operative training is impracticable, a well-organized curriculum has considerable merit. Although a general course in salesmanship may not possess specific occupational value, it may help students to obtain their initial position and aid them in taking advantage of promotional opportunities.

Probably the best place for distributive education is in full time trade schools, particularly if trained co-ordinators can be employed to act as liaison agents between the schools and the stores. In large communities, it might be desirable to have a central vocational school, devoted entirely to the training of salesmen. Here it would be possible to furnish instruction in the various selling fields and permit each student to become acquainted with certain specialties.

In fact, it might be possible to co-ordinate the work of a school devoted to the teaching of salesmanship of textiles. An arrangement

could be made whereby students who are planning to become textile salesmen would receive this specialized training. The same program might be instituted for food trade workers and others. In New York City, for example, the Central Commercial High School is doing splendid work in certain selling occupations on a preservice, as well as in service, basis.

IN SERVICE TRAINING

It is noteworthy and somewhat surprising that in service training in merchandising occupations has been far more successful than preservice training, and that in contrast, in service training in clerical services has been accidental and poorly presented, whereas preservice training has been relatively well planned and well presented.

In distributive occupations, the major program must necessarily be given on an in service basis. The majority of large department stores have been providing such training for their employees for many years. There is a vestibule school for new salespersons in which they are taught the sales procedures of the store, after this training the new workers are placed on the sales floor under the guidance of a specially selected and trained sponsor. Follow up, based on sales records, and opportunity for promotional training are provided. A group of professional department-store sales trainers has developed with well established techniques. This training, combined with that of professional schools of retailing (such as the Prince School of Boston, and the Schools of Retailing of New York University and the University of Pittsburgh), provides co-ordination of job training with advanced study of merchandising procedures.

Smaller stores and individual proprietors have neither the facilities nor the ability to present in service training. It is, therefore, incumbent upon the public schools in the community to provide in service training through adult extension classes, through evening classes, and through the co-operative part time program previously mentioned. This training may range from ten to fewer hours—presented by an itinerant teacher—to an extensive series of studies, carried on under the guidance of the leading specialists in the field. Recently around 300 000 workers have been participating in such programs yearly.

FEDERAL AID FOR DISTRIBUTIVE TRAINING

In spite of the relatively small amount of money available (\$2,500,000 under the George Barden Act of 1946), much has been done. Even when state governments match the Federal contribution dollar for dollar, the total sum available is small as compared with that allowed for other vocational fields. Yet, in some years, well over 300,000 persons received training in federally aided distributive education. About 16,000 of these are co-operative work-experience students in high school. Supervisors of distributive education have been appointed in 46 states, in the District of Columbia, and in Porto Rico. In 41 states there are now full time supervisors of distributive education, and six of these states (California, Connecticut, Louisiana, Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania) have supervisors of business education as well as of distributive education. While it is true that a considerable portion of the money is still being spent for supervision and control, the amount spent on actual training is increasing every year. Though most of the training has been given in the department store area, efforts are being increased to train for small store distributive services. Those responsible for guiding the program recognize that the greatest vocational opportunities for students of post high school age are found in smaller stores. This is an encouraging sign.

Training is to be given to persons over sixteen who are full time workers and who are attending extension or evening classes, for brief periods, to full time students who have had adequate occupational experience, and to co-operative students who are spending as much time on the job as they are in school. The act rules out preservice training.

To qualify for employment under the George-Barden Act, teachers and supervisors must have adequate occupational experience. While the state formulates the regulations, the Federal authorities have the right to refuse to accept programs they deem inadequate.

In 1958, the total Federal allotment to distributive education was \$2,602,142. This sum was about 8 per cent of the total of over \$32 million allotted to vocational education by the national government. Each state was allotted at least \$15,000 regardless of population. About \$250,000 was granted to New York, \$181,000 to California, and \$141,000 to Illinois. Not all states took their allotment, for they are required

as a rule to match the contribution of the Federal government in spending. On the other hand, several states like New York, for example, far exceeded the minimum requirement. Allotments to agricultural education exceeded \$10 million, even though the government is, in a sense, embarrassed by the surpluses caused by agricultural efficiency and in spite of the fact that there is dire need for improvement in the American marketing system. In contrast, nothing was provided for office education.

SOME EXCELLENT EXAMPLES OF DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION

The negative conclusions in this chapter do not apply to those communities which have been doing splendid work in distributive training, such cities, for example, as Boston, Los Angeles, New York, Philadelphia, and possibly a half dozen more. The criticisms are directed toward those schools that have attempted to develop unsound programs of salesmanship education. In the small school there is usually more justification for a minimal program in distributive education, however, the selling occupations have been too widely neglected.

If our capitalistic system retains its present form, high-pressure distribution will probably be accentuated within the next few decades. Shall the school ignore this situation, saying that high pressure salesmanship is distasteful to it, or shall it squarely face the challenge? If the school is to perform its true function, it must accept the challenge and direct American salesmanship toward service, rather than permit it to deteriorate into shrewd high pressure selling techniques.

As civilization becomes more and more mechanically efficient, it is increasingly incumbent upon the manufacturer not only to produce excellent articles but also to render desirable services. If the salesman is concerned with service as well as selling to the consumer, any increase in sales personnel will be regarded as a boon to society, not as a detriment. The public schools must do their share in bringing salesmanship up to this high level of achievement.

Collegiate Instruction in Retailing

Training in the office skills has been given predominantly in the secondary and private business schools, but retailing is given its major emphasis on the collegiate level. While such schools as the Prince

School of Retailing of Boston, the New York University School of Retailing, and the School of Retailing of the University of Pittsburgh are possibly best known, many other schools offer splendid training in retailing in particular and distributive education in general. Collegiate instruction in retailing has the characteristics and problems of all forms of collegiate business education indicated in Chapter XXVI. However, retailing instruction is especially closely related to actual store operation and therefore the faculties of such schools are particularly aware of job needs.

An exceedingly large variety of courses are offered dealing with every phase of selling, store control and management, and commodity study. Most of the emphasis, however, is given to retailing and much less to other phases of distributive education. Even in the field of retailing, stress is placed upon department store work at the expense of the small specialty and chain store.

Here is a list of some of the many courses offered in larger schools of retailing.

Trends in retailing	Retail advertising copy
Retail merchandising techniques	Retailing policies
Retail-store salesmanship	Retail store sales promotion
Retail personnel administration	Interior decoration
Color and design in retailing	Management of small stores
Fashion fabrics in apparel	Chain-store management
Fabrics for home furnishings	Store planning, design, modernization, and maintenance
Fashion analysis and evaluation	Supervised store experience
Home furnishings	Retailing policies
Store organization and operation	
Retail store advertising	

In addition to these types of courses, the usual program in retailing would, of course, require courses in liberal arts, and in the broader commerce courses. The trend at present (1960) seems to be toward expanding the background courses and giving somewhat less attention to the most specialized courses in retailing.

The graduate program of the School of Retailing at the University of Pittsburgh consists of the courses shown at the top of page 353.

Much progress has been made in graduate instruction in retailing. Predominantly, such graduate work has been based on a four-year undergraduate liberal arts program. Increased attention is also being given

<i>Title</i>	<i>Credits</i>
The market for consumer goods	2
Human relations	2
Sales promotion (3 credits during 2 terms)	6
Management of service operations	2
Administration of the selling function	2
Merchandising management	5
Credit, finance, and control	2
Merchandise design and fashion	2
Personnel management	2
Merchandise information	2
Research methods and analysis	2
Seminar in managerial areas	2

to graduate work for those who have specialized in retailing before entrance into graduate schools. Naturally such work should be closely connected with a program of research in retailing. Community colleges, junior colleges, and post-secondary vocational institutes also are well disposed toward retailing instruction. While the merchants are in some cases lukewarm to school training for retailing, most of them have been inclined toward favoring the graduates of school programs, and in many instances, enthusiastic to the extent of financial support and participation in the instructional program.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1 Should distributive training be offered in the average high school? If not, why not? Would you modify your answer when speaking of a large city high school?

2 Is there justification for some preservice training in distributive occupations?

3 On what basis should in-service training for a given distributive occupation be reorganized?

4 What are the dangers of attempting consumer training in distributive-education courses? Are there advantages?

5 What are the present weaknesses in the teaching of advertising and selling in high schools?

6 To what extent is a high school course in marketing justified?

7 What criteria should be used to determine co-operative work in distributive training? Should co-operating students be paid?

8 What is the function of the co-ordinator in co-operative training?

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Merchandise design and fashion	2
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7 What criteria should be used to determine co-operative work in distributive training? Should co-operating students be paid?

8 What is the function of the co-ordinator in co-operative training?

- 9 What should be the requirements for teachers of preservice salesmanship? Of in service salesmanship?
- 10 What is the present status of Federal aid to distributive education?

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See also the April issues of the *UBEA Forum* which are annually devoted to the teaching of distributive occupations

CHAPTER XXII

Social-Business Education

THIS CHAPTER is concerned with the values that business education possesses for all students rather than with its job-preparation values for a limited number. This area is known as social business, general business, or basic business education. These terms will be used interchangeably in this chapter. Some educators object to the use of the term basic business education because they prefer to use it to designate the basic *skill* subjects such as shorthand and typing. It deals with the curriculum placement of subjects designed to obtain objectives of economic efficiency.

Business education can improve the economic life of students in two ways: (1) by giving them the knowledge necessary to enable them to purchase intelligently the services and goods that business offers them for their own consumption or use, and by developing a better understanding of business relationships, (2) by making students aware of the weaknesses in our methods of conducting business and offering some suggestions for improvement.

What are the high schools doing to educate students in these directions?

SOCIAL-BUSINESS SUBJECTS

Social business subjects that are most frequently taught are junior business training, economic geography, business law, economics, busi-

ness organization—and possibly advertising, selling, and business English, depending on the purposes for, and method by, which they are taught. Even bookkeeping taught primarily for social objectives would be a social-business subject.

Courses in these subjects are not adequate media for interpreting the economic structure for three reasons:

1. The enrollments are small, and with the exception of economics, these courses are required only for business students.

2. More girls than boys take these subjects, yet boys especially need training in business relationships.

3. These courses often become isolated units, unrelated to each other and to other subjects in the curriculum, therefore, there is more duplication than is necessary or desirable.

As several studies have shown, high school economics is, all too often, merely an outline of collegiate courses in economic theory. As shown, the subject fails to give the student an insight into the economic system. This does not imply that economic theory is not worth learning, but that it should be made more realistic.

Introduction to Business. Junior business training or introduction to business, as it is more frequently called, is probably the best course for introducing the pupil to the problems he must face as a consumer. This subject is usually offered for a full year in the ninth grade. Several recent texts in this subject emphasize the need for better training in the use of business services.

In a small number of communities, introduction to business is a required course for all, rather than for business students only. This is undoubtedly a step in the right direction, for unlike those who major in business, many students will receive no other contact with organized training for business. Whether this number can be increased is doubted. With the advent of the core curriculum in the ninth grade, there is a tendency to integrate all subject matter into the core.

Any business subject, if efficiently taught, will elucidate economic relationships and will help greatly to develop better use of business services. No subject, whatever its title, will do this, however, unless it is specifically pointed toward that goal. Most business courses are taken only by a limited number of students and deal with a very restricted phase of the economic structure, so that they are not entirely satisfactory.

media for developing a well rounded understanding of commercial life. See Chapter XXIV on the junior high school for a more complete discussion of this topic.

Economic Geography Economic geography is primarily concerned with the way in which geography affects economic behavior. It is related to biological geography, historical geography, and similar courses in so far as they all influence economic life. In most schools that offer economic geography, the subject is a required course for business students and an elective for others.

Why should economic geography be attached to the business curriculum? Do not other students come into contact with economic life? Would not a course in general geography meet student needs more fully? A course in general geography, it is suggested, should be offered all students either as a required or elective course because geography is a major influence in human destiny. The sponsors of economic geography, as a requirement in the business program and taught by business teachers, feel that it is uniquely important for those going into business to have a fuller and richer understanding of geography than others. The tendency seems to take economic geography out of the business programs as a special subject and to integrate it into the unified social studies program.

Business Law It is strange that a true understanding of law is not taught in the public schools, for it is more important that everyone should understand the elements of law and the legal foundations of democracy than that he should know who is the King of Afghanistan or that King John signed the Magna Carta. The absence in most of our secondary schools of a primary course in law is another example of the need for modernizing school curricula.

Business-law courses too often emphasize technical details and slight the fundamentals.

The faults of the customary high school course in business law arise chiefly from the attempts to summarize in one semester the technicalities covered in the three year professional program in a law school. As long as the subject is taught in this way, it will not be of much help in strengthening one of the weakest links in our social system.

Some of the purposes of a high school course in law should be to

1. Familiarize the student with some of the basic principles of law, emphasizing those that are significant in business.

- 2 Train the student in the use of those elementary business and legal forms that may be used without the aid of a lawyer
- 3 Acquaint the student with the organization, jurisdiction, and functioning of courts
- 4 Inspire respect for law and constituted authority
- 5 Awaken a realization of the inadequacies of our present legal system and a desire to correct these weaknesses

The aims and subject matter of business law as taught at present are unsatisfactory. Should the schools teach business law rather than general law? The distinction between the two is largely fictitious, just as the distinction between the academic and the business student is erroneous.

Unless high school law courses can be made useful to the individual student and can point the way toward improvement of the legal system, it should be eliminated from the program of studies. When an adequate course is developed, it may become one of the most valuable courses in the curriculum.

Economics Economics was first taught in college, where it was originally regarded as a branch of philosophy. When, toward the end of the nineteenth century, economics was introduced into the high school, the subject was taught from much the same point of view. Until recently, high school economics consisted of an oversimplified survey of the supposedly basic principles of the science.

In recent years, colleges have begun to teach institutional, rather than theoretical, economics (at least to the beginning student), and this approach is suggested for the high school. On the high school level, the student should be introduced to the study of economic life by means of word pictures, concrete situations, and definite problems, rather than by abstract rules and principles. Whatever theoretical material is involved should be presented in terms of practical situations and only as a means of relating the situation to the student's present or future experiences.

Essentially, the high school should strive to make the student economically literate. He should not be taught the old time theoretical explanations for economic activity. In the final analysis, economics is nothing more than a specialized study of human behavior. If students can be made to realize that human beings are largely conditioned by environment and not by the arbitrary theories formulated in economic texts, the school will have performed a great service.

Adequate texts, giving an institutional approach to economics, are

needed. Some recent books indicate an awareness of this need, and the institutional approach to economics has become increasingly prominent in high school courses. Here are some of the types of topics that are being considered:

- 1 Improving quality and character of consumption
- 2 Determining the proper balance between saving and spending.
- 3 Raising the standard of living
- 4 Preventing the unwise exploitation of natural wealth
- 5 Achieving a more equal distribution of wealth and income
- 6 Reducing or eliminating unemployment by giving all worthy citizens a means of earning a minimal living by fair labor
- 7 Making adequate provision for old age, sickness, and other social hazards
- 8 Assuring adequate economic returns for the farming population
- 9 Developing more equitable forms of taxation.
- 10 Reducing the strength of periodic cycles
- 11 Reducing the number of business failures
12. Reducing marketing costs to a more reasonable level (Includes the problem of reducing advertising to the minimum required for social welfare)
- 13 Determining the limit to which installment selling is desirable
- 14 Improving the organizing of the economic or business relationships between nations (especially the problems of tariff and international debts)
- 15 Increasing the national and per capita output of wealth
- 16 Achieving a better standardization of economic goods
- 17 Achieving a better administration of absentee-owned capital and wealth
- 18 Developing individual understanding of the nature of these problems and of the means by which they may partly at least, be eliminated from American life. Education dealing with business should concentrate on problems of this type rather than on abstract economic theory

Recent data indicate that the number of students taking economics is decreasing, while enrollment in courses in the problems of American democracy and other social studies is increasing. Such courses, however, deal with social and political, as well as economic, life, hence, at best they can give little attention to economic situations.¹ Perhaps special

¹ See also C. W. McKee and H. G. Moulton, *A Survey of Economic Education*. Washington: D. C. The Brookings Institution, 1951. The bulletin gives a strong indictment of the tendency of economics in the secondary schools, private business schools, and collegiate schools.

courses in economics to supplement the courses in problems of American democracy are needed. If so, they may be allocated to the business department. Another suggestion would be to teach economics as a part of advanced business courses, which are increasingly being introduced in the high school program.

Ordinarily, the person assigned to teach economics is a specialist in social studies. While he may have had extensive training in economics, his principal interest is usually political history. With a college training that is largely theoretical, he naturally presents to his students the subject matter he was taught, in the way in which it was taught to him.

On the other hand, occasionally the economics teacher is chosen from the business department. If he has studied not only the theory of economics but also the practical aspects of business, he probably has a better background than the teacher who has specialized in social subjects. Nevertheless, he is not likely to present a worthwhile course in economics if he is primarily interested in subjects included in the traditional business curriculum.

Many teachers of social studies and of business are now receiving a more comprehensive training. This holds a promise of improved subject matter and methods in high school economics. Nevertheless, as McKee and Moulton indicate, "reorganization, involving omissions of courses now given, is indispensable if economic education worthy of the name is to be provided. Moreover, if real progress is to be made, economics must be a required course."²

Business English. Although business English is nonvocational, it is often not classified as a social-business subject because it is usually taught to develop the students' abilities in the use of English rather than their social understanding. Yet its problems are, for the most part, common to the social-business subjects.

That there is a specialized use of English in business can hardly be questioned. Yet is not the professional man also required to write and speak business English? Does the physician, for example, need business English less than the merchant? Surely, business English goes far beyond the business office, just as business itself permeates every phase of social life. Should not more attention be given in the regular English courses to the business application of English? It may be desirable to

² *Ibid.*, p. 62

Elimination of waste in consumption

Improvement of standards

Weights, grades, and measurements

Consumer financial problems, such as banking, credit, personal accounting and budgeting, installment buying, and investing

These topics should be taught either by teachers of business or by instructors in other departments who have the requisite background. Adequate texts for consumer courses have recently appeared, it is doubtful, however, whether these courses should be developed entirely around textbook material.

Duplication is inevitable when courses of this type are given within several departments. It has not yet been determined in which department or departments consumer education should be offered, and this problem constitutes a major handicap in developing these courses.

Courses in consumer education are increasing in colleges and in schools devoted to adult education. Doubtless, most consumer problems should be dealt with on the adult, rather than on the high school, level. Nevertheless, the growth of consumer education in the secondary schools is indicative of a trend toward subject matter that is more realistic and more attuned to the daily life of students.

One important influence toward increased attention to consumer education in the schools has been the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. This study was underwritten by the National Better Business Bureau, Inc. A considerable number of study bulletins on specific topics of consumer education have been published by this group. More recently, these have been organized into a text. Many firms produce excellent bulletins explaining their products. They often are mentioned in business education publications and should be used by teachers of consumer education. Of course, teachers should make critical evaluations of such sources and warn students about the tendencies for such material to be biased. These bulletin materials without doubt caused a strong penetration of consumer study into the school program at all levels. Thereby, however, a decreased need resulted for specialized courses in consumer education. Whether special courses in consumer education remain a part of the school program or not, there is no doubt that the consumer education movement has done much to make schoolwork more realistic and interesting for the student.

ADVANCED OR SENIOR BUSINESS COURSES

The organization of advanced business courses for the eleventh or twelfth year is one of the outstanding recent developments in social-business education. Its growth has been particularly rapid since 1935. The elementary business course is an introductory course only and does not give an adequate understanding of the functions of business. The advanced business course grew out of the inadequacies of business organization and distributive-education courses. At first, the content and the instructional material of the advanced business course were vague and duplicated some material in other subjects. Improved course outlines, better texts, and more adequate teaching materials are now available. Some of the content is taken from courses in marketing and business organization and management, moreover, the nature of the material is better understood, and better methods are being developed.

If the advanced business course gives the student a better understanding of these marketing problems, it will render the entire community an enormous service. The advanced business course should also show the relationship of the various positions in typical firms. Some employees are of primary importance to the company, while some merely facilitate the performance of other employees. Furthermore, the advanced business course should give the prospective employee an understanding of the function of the personnel department and its importance to him. To do this, the schools should present students with a broad perspective in which everyone's niche is made clear. Still another objective of the course is to emphasize the need of planning in all types of business—personal, individual, corporate, and national. On the other hand, the course should not incorporate the content of formal bookkeeping, although some consideration of the subject, particularly its personal use values, is worth while. Advanced business should avoid duplicating the content of elementary business, for example, topics such as communication and travel belong in the latter course.

The development of consumer education as a function of the business department has contributed to the growth in enrollment of advanced business. The latter, however, should not attempt to deal with specific buying problems, which is the domain of consumer or home economics courses. Advanced business should treat the general aspects of buying and show how the buyer's problems are related to the consumer. Certain

aspects of buying, such as investment, risk reduction, and credit, should be treated fully in the advanced business course because they are usually discussed only briefly elsewhere in the curriculum. Material that was formerly presented in courses in economics might also be offered in advanced business.

PROBLEM OF TEACHER INTEREST

Most business teachers, as we realize, are teachers of shorthand and typewriting. Even bookkeeping is only of secondary interest to them. They will accept assignments, therefore, in social-business subjects only under protest. Occasionally, some teacher keenly interested in this vital subject matter will develop a live program. Soon, however, he leaves the school system and goes into business, gets an administrative assignment, or gets a college teaching post. The emphasis upon social-business education almost immediately drops.

One of the reasons for lack of teacher interest is that teacher-training institutions do not emphasize this type of subject matter. Some of them have tried to do this, but have soon found that those who were trained only in the social-business subjects rarely obtained positions, or if they did, only with great difficulty. Having burned their fingers, they have decided to teach the social business subjects only as adjuncts to training for the teaching of bookkeeping, or shorthand and typing, or worse yet, to both. Thus the unfortunate cycle is continued. It is futile to place the primary guilt on the teacher-training institutions, for their concern is to place teachers on the job. Their success is determined by the degree to which their graduates are placed.

PLAN FOR ACTION

Since all agree that the social business subjects are vital to the program of business education, a plan of action should be provided to overcome the present difficulties and put the subjects in their proper place. Here are some suggestions for meeting the basic problem of business education.

- 1 Curriculum planners should recognize the general educational value of much of the content of the social business subjects and freely and willingly co-operate with the teachers of social studies, English,

mathematics, science, and home economics in absorbing those phases of social-business education that are really significant to all students

Those phases of basic business education, important for all regardless of their life objective, would thus become units of a core-curriculum program in the junior high school years. This means that some business teachers might become common learnings teachers, and it also means that all teachers of the common core areas should have training in the presentation of the basic economic-business understandings

2 It will be necessary to build the social-business subjects, intended for business students, around those phases of the work that are not significant to all students, and yet highly desirable for business students. This program might be a one- or a two-year sequence and could be built up from the materials now presented in such courses as junior business training, economics, business law, marketing, management, job relations, consumer education, and those aspects of bookkeeping that are important for everyone entering business, rather than those technical phases of bookkeeping primarily important for the student who plans to get his initial position as a bookkeeper

3 This prevocational business-education program should be based on the learnings acquired in the core program. If these fundamentals have not been learned in the core program, it may be necessary to establish a preliminary course within the business program to provide these basic skills. The need for such a course should be determined by preliminary diagnostic tests, and the work should round out incomplete learnings and correct misunderstandings, rather than assume that a fifteen- or sixteen-year old student has no knowledge of the fundamentals.

Many phases of occupational intelligence needed by those going into business have not been adequately treated in school. Subject matter that will develop such occupational business understanding, but is not uniquely job-skill training, is the subject matter of pre-vocational business education. In this area, the division of content is not absolute. Much of it will be transitional subject matter that can be taught partly in the social studies, for example, and that will have to be correlated with a more detailed presentation of social-business content. On the other hand, some of the subject matter taught in the social-business subjects will also have to be related to the content of specific job-training subjects. This problem is perennial. Certainly the problems of desirable correlation are not limited to social business subjects.

4 Educators should plan a sequence for social-business subjects and teach them accordingly. Social-business education has suffered because the subject matter is not taught in sequence. Students could, and still can, take business law without having had bookkeeping, geography, or even elementary business training. Each one of the subjects is now treated as an isolated unit. Each teacher must go back to the fundamentals, therefore, the treatment of subject matter must remain elementary. The necessity for remaining at a superficial level results in low standards and soon causes the able students to become disinterested. It should be realized, moreover, that poorly trained and uninterested teachers abet this tendency, and proper training and selection should be considered part of the program.

Whether this material can be presented in one term, two terms, four terms, or six terms has not been determined. No group or commission, let alone a single individual, can be dogmatic as to what this content should be.³ Publishing companies and individual authors must still do

TABLE 21 *Some Examples of the Differentiation of Basic Business for All Students and Business Students*

<i>Needed by All Pupils</i>	<i>Higher Level Needed by Business Pupils</i>
Ability to write a check.	Ability to keep a check book and reconcile it with a bank statement.
Ability to read with understanding the financial news on the front page of a metropolitan newspaper.	Ability to read with understanding the financial section of a metropolitan newspaper.
An understanding of the nature of good management in the home.	An understanding of the characteristics of good management in the office.
Knowledge of cost of first-class mail and an understanding of how to find out how to use other classes of mail.	Considerable skill in mailing by second, third and fourth class, and such procedures as special handling, registered mail, and return receipt.
Ability to work out the cost of a good main meal for a family of four.	Ability to work out the cost of adequate insurance protection for a specific family of four.

³ M. Herbert Freeman, *A Preliminary Report of a Basic Business Education Study*, Monograph 74, Cincinnati, South Western Publishing Company, 1951.

Needed by All Pupils

Ability to schedule for, and buy, transportation to a nearby community

Ability to read, with understanding simple pie and bar graphs

Ability to plan the purchase of the family food supply for a week end

Awareness of the high cost of installment buying

Ability to wrap and mail a book

Understanding of the difference between savings banks and business banks

Ability to write a simple letter expressing inability to accept an invitation or offer

Ability to call a neighbor on the telephone for help or advice

A simple cautious loyalty to the American complex of business procedure and economic life

*Higher Level**Needed by Business Pupils*

Ability to read detailed time tables schedule, and buy transportation for a trip involving use of several means of transportation, including several stopovers and alternates for possible changes enroute

Ability to read a graph presenting the business cycle for several decades and its relation to stock market prices

Ability to plan the buying budget of a family for an extended period of time

Ability to figure out the interest cost of an installment purchase

Ability to provide for the packaging of book orders and determine the best method of shipment

Understanding of the function of the Federal Reserve System in serving as the central bank and its control of the money supply through the setting of the rediscount rate

Ability to write a letter of refusal to a request and maintain the greatest amount of good will possible

Ability to make a long distance call involving decision as to whether to use person-to-person plan, reverse charges, etc

A fairly thorough understanding of the values and limitations of American business procedure and economic life in many of its intricate ramifications and a sensible loyalty to the American plan as compared to other economic systems An ability to discriminate as to the soundness of proposals for the betterment of American economic practices

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CHAPTER XXIII

Business Education in the Small High School

THE SMALL high school is defined in this book as a secondary school that has fewer than 300 pupils and fewer than two full time teachers of business subjects. These schools are usually in rural areas, where business is not the predominant characteristic of the environment. Many thousands of teachers of business subjects in the secondary schools are teaching in such schools, therefore, the wise training of the teacher of business education and the planning of an adequate program of instruction for the small or rural high school is of paramount importance.

BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE SMALL SCHOOL IS NOT UNIQUE

There is nothing that sharply differentiates business education in the small high school from business training in the large school. Although the areas in which the small high school gives its usual service is one in which business does not predominate, there are many business activities in these areas. People have and use banks, the shops are visited by representatives of jobbers and wholesalers, people carry insurance, they advertise, they must manage their homes, farms, and other activities through which they earn a living. Moreover, though the school may be in a small community, the extensive road system and the automobile have made most small communities, in greater or less degree, suburbs which have many, if not most, of the characteristics of urban life. In short, there is nothing that separates the small from the large school.

except in degree. Most schools are, and are increasingly becoming, middle sized schools. The larger communities are striving to decrease the enrollment in each school by opening more high schools, and the very small high schools are rapidly being consolidated into community high schools, though the process will take decades before it has been completed to the extent possible. Everything that is presented in this text, therefore, applies just as much to the program of business education in the small high school as it does to the work in the larger school.

Consequently, this chapter does not deal with all phases of business education in the small high school. They have been dealt with in other chapters. This chapter indicates only those aspects of work in the small high school that are especially important and which, because of the small enrollment and usually limited population that the school serves, give the small high school special training advantages and problems.

The ultimate solution to the problem of business education in the small high school is in the elimination of the small high school wherever possible. The gradual elimination of the small high school will benefit all segments of education rather than only business education. As Conant points out in dealing with this topic, the prevalence of small high schools (which he defines as those graduating less than a hundred students) constitutes one of the serious obstacles to good secondary education.¹ He feels that the academic and nonacademic, as well as vocational, students suffer. Moreover, according to Conant, the small high school makes poor use of the time and effort of administrators, teachers, and specialists. Turnover of teachers is very high, classes are too small and therefore too expensive, and many advanced courses that are especially useful to students with special interests cannot be given except at prohibitive costs.

THE BUSINESS TEACHER IN THE SMALL SCHOOL

Typically, there is a higher rate of turnover of teachers of all subjects in the small high school. Again, this is characteristic of business teachers in the smaller high schools only in degree. In many states the teachers of business education usually remain teachers of these subjects for a little

¹ James B. Conant, *The American High School Today*. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959, pp. 77-78.

over three years and in this short period teach in two different schools. It is not unusual for students to have a new teacher of business subjects for two or more years in succession.

The teachers of business subjects in the small high schools are usually beginning teachers, or teachers who have particular reasons for wanting to stay in the local community. Often, therefore, these teachers are not in a position to carry through sweeping curriculum changes. By the time they have made themselves a part of the community and are in a position to give guidance in the improvement of a program of business education, they move on to other and larger schools, or move out of business education as an occupation.

The business teacher in the smaller high school, therefore, often needs more help in organizing a program of instruction in business education than his colleagues in the larger schools, where some teachers remain members of the faculty for many more years and thus have greater opportunity for voicing their opinions. This makes the program in business education a matter of great personal importance to them.

THE SPECIAL PROBLEM OF THE SMALL SCHOOL

Rural schools educate almost 30 per cent of the nation's children, their areas of service get less than 10 per cent of the national income, yet, almost 50 per cent of the youth of rural areas migrate to urban areas. There is every likelihood that they will continue to do so. The rural area, with far less than its proportionate share of income, thus, has the burden of preparing its youth for the urban center. The urban area has better financial means of training, but, nevertheless, benefits from the training paid for by the rural area.

There is little question that the improvement of instruction in all subjects, including business education, requires a better ratio between expenditures for education and economic competency of the community. Many states have already made considerable headway in adjusting educational need to income by giving special subsidies to the less economically able communities. There is, however, even greater divergency in economic ability among the states, some of which are primarily industrial and some of which are primarily agricultural. However, Federal subsidy may not be a solution to the problem. There are reasons why large segments of the community oppose Federal subsidy for schooling.

in spite of the differences of abilities among communities to support education

THE BUSINESS PROGRAM IN THE SMALL SCHOOL

Small high schools have tried for a long time to set up programs as identical as possible to those of the larger communities. Thus, in many small high schools it will be found that the one teacher of business education is attempting to give two years of shorthand, three years of typing, two years of bookkeeping, and often one or two other business subjects, at least in alternate years. This is obviously an unfair burden upon a young teacher with little experience both in business and in teaching. The teacher in the large urban school, on the other hand, teaches one, or at the most, two subjects for five periods a day with a limited or no program of extra-curricular activities. In the small high school, the business teacher, who often is in his first year of teaching, is likely to be required to carry six periods (and sometimes even more) a day of instruction, each period of instruction being in a different subject. Very often, in order to cope with the demands for a full business-education program, this young teacher must teach two subjects in a single period. In addition, he is required to carry a large burden of extra-curricular activities inasmuch as he is the only business teacher. His big-city colleague has several associates among whom the extra-curricular activities may be divided.

SOME EXAMPLES OF SMALL SCHOOL BUSINESS PROGRAMS

In a Colorado high school, for example, the business teacher has seven periods a day as follows: Typing I (two classes), Typing II, Office Practice, Business Law (full year), Shorthand I, Shorthand II. In a small New Mexico community, the teacher has six classes with these subjects: Shorthand, Typing, Bookkeeping, World History, Geography, Arithmetic. In Montana, the business teacher in a school with 120 students teaches four classes: Typing, Shorthand I, Shorthand II, and Bookkeeping, and also coaches baseball and football. In a small Illinois town, the business teacher has Typing I (two classes), Typing II, Selling and Advertising (two classes), Bookkeeping I, General Business. In

addition, the teacher sponsors these activities photographic club, the school newspaper, public relations, and the yearbook. He also serves as senior class advisor.

Here is the business program of a small Illinois high school

<i>Ninth Grade</i>	<i>Tenth Grade</i>
Business arithmetic	Introduction to business
Commercial geography	
<i>Eleventh Grade</i>	<i>Twelfth Grade</i>
Typewriting I for personal and vocational use	Office machines
Shorthand I	Stenography
Advanced business principles	Office practice
Bookkeeping (vocational)	Consumer education (one semester)
	Retail selling (planned) (one semester)

At a small Colorado high school where a full program is not offered every year, the following schedules are alternated

Introduction to business (9th, 10th)	Typing I (11th, 12th)
Typing I (11th, 12th)	Typing II (11th, 12th)
Typing II (11th, 12th)	Bookkeeping (11th, 12th)
Shorthand (11th, 12th)	Consumer education (11th, 12th)
Introduction to business (9th, 10th)	

In a very small high school in South Dakota, an eleventh- and twelfth-year program is offered with general business taught by a non-business teacher in the second half of the tenth year

<i>Eleventh Year</i>	<i>Twelfth Year</i>
English (taught by the business teacher)	English (taught by the business teacher)
Shorthand I	Shorthand II
Typewriting I	Typewriting II
Bookkeeping	Bookkeeping (if not taken in the 11th grade)

A STATE PATTERN FOR SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

The Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction suggests in addition to core subjects the following programs for business education in small high schools

One-Teacher Business Education Department (Shorthand)

<i>Grade 10</i>	<i>Grade 11</i>	<i>Grade 12</i>
General business	Bookkeeping I Shorthand I Typewriting I	Office practice Shorthand II Typewriting II

One-Teacher Business Education Department (Non-Shorthand)

<i>Grade 10</i>	<i>Grade 11</i>	<i>Grade 12</i>
Business mathematics General business	Principles of selling Typewriting I	Bookkeeping I Business law Typewriting II (including work in office practice)

Two Teacher Business Education Department

<i>Grade 10</i>	<i>Grade 11</i>	<i>Grade 12</i>
Business mathematics General business	Bookkeeping I Shorthand I Typewriting I	Business English Business law Office practice Shorthand II Typewriting II

The program for the one-teacher school suggests a seven period program. This load would be considered most unwise in a large school. It seems even less justified in a one-business-teacher school. If other teachers offer some of the courses then, if the teachers are qualified business teachers, the school is no longer a one-teacher school. If they are not qualified, this practice is not wise. Possibly two or more courses are taught at one time. Many would question this procedure also.

PROVIDING A PROGRAM IN THE ONE TEACHER SCHOOL

A common practice, fortunately decreasing somewhat, is that of having the teacher responsible for two classes at one time by partitioning the classroom with a screen and having the teacher responsible for both groups. The teacher gets one class started, and then works with the other and reverts to the other throughout the period. Sometimes a teacher may be responsible for ten students in first-year bookkeeping and four students in second year bookkeeping in one section of the room and for ten students in typing in the other section. Theoretically, a teacher with

a load of six classes could carry twelve different subjects. Practically, the combination is usually made with typing and some prepared subject. The result of this procedure is not satisfactory either in adequacy of teaching or result in learning.

TABLE 22 *Business Subject Offerings in 215 Small High Schools Of Wisconsin, 1950-1951**

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>	<i>Per Cent of 215 Schools</i>
Beginning typewriting	215	100.0
Bookkeeping I	195	90.7
Shorthand I	181	84.2
General business	107	49.8
Advanced typewriting	91	42.3
Advanced shorthand	61	28.4
Office practice	30	14.0
Commercial arithmetic	30	14.0
Secretarial practice	25	11.6
Commercial geography	20	9.3
Combinations		
Advanced shorthand and secretarial practice	20	9.3
Advanced shorthand, secretarial and office practice	12	5.6
Advanced typewriting, secretarial and office practice	8	3.7
General business, citizenship	1	.5
Commercial law	7	3.3
Advanced bookkeeping	4	1.9
Consumer education	3	1.4
Office machines	2	0.9
Economics	2	0.9

* From Norman Thies, "A Study of Programs and Equipment for Business Education in the Small High Schools of Wisconsin, 1950-1951," M. A. University of Iowa, presented in *The Balance Sheet* XXXIV (November, 1952), p. 132.

If the administration in a one-business teacher school feels that a fairly complete program must be offered, it would be wiser to alternate subjects. For example, in one year the teacher might offer typing, introduction to business, elementary shorthand, second-year bookkeeping, and merchandising. In the alternate year the teacher might offer typing, introduction to business, advanced shorthand, first-year bookkeeping,

and office practice. Students, thus, would be able, by starting shorthand in the tenth or eleventh year and bookkeeping in the eleventh or twelfth year, to complete a rather full program of skill subjects. Even this procedure is not to be recommended because it puts an excessive load of various subjects on the teacher and overloads the student with skill subjects at the expense of developmental type of subject matter. Nevertheless, it is better than the "glass partition" technique.

Still better is the procedure of offering only those subjects that the teacher can handle and which the community needs to justify. Such a program might be introduction to business, remedial arithmetic (if needed) or general merchandising, typing, recording and bookkeeping, and clerical practice. One year of shorthand might be substituted for one of these subjects if the students have the ability, the community can profit, and there is opportunity for further training.

PROPOSAL FOR THE BUSINESS PROGRAM IN THE SMALL SCHOOL

Because of the problems outlined in preceding paragraphs, many experts in the field of business education have suggested a completely different program of business education for the small high school from that of the larger, metropolitan type secondary school. It is proposed that, in a small high school, the teacher of business subjects devote himself first to a course in general business education inasmuch as this course is particularly applicable to all students. In addition, business educators would be quite willing to see this beginning teacher give a course in typewriting, and if there is room available, they would usually suggest a course in record keeping, with emphasis upon bookkeeping for farming purposes. Only in the occasional small high school that is located in a community with an obvious demand for stenographers would there be reason to include shorthand in its program of business education.

THE GROUPS SERVED BY BUSINESS EDUCATION

The business teacher in the small high school should serve two groups: those students who stay in the local community and those who seek positions in the larger urban communities.

Those students who stay in the smaller community and secure positions there, or those who go into small business enterprises, need to receive a type of training rather different from that given to those who are going into the larger communities. Those who become farmers, or who work closely with farmers, may need to receive training in clerical work in the kind of record-keeping undertaken in the control of farm production. If they are much concerned with clerical work, some instruction in typing may be desirable.

Those who plan to go to larger communities need to receive specific job training for the initial position that they are going to secure. This means that their program should be similar to that given in a good urban high school. If it is not possible (as is usually the case) to give a complete program, then thorough instruction in a part of a program should be given rather than superficial instruction in the whole program. The students who attend the small, rural-type secondary school, if given part of the training thoroughly, can easily complete the rest in a larger, more specialized school in a larger urban community. This school may be a private business school, an evening school in the secondary school system in the community, or one of the state institutes of specialized training, such as are developing all over the country and have become a part of the university system of the State of New York.

For example, there has been considerable criticism of the tendency of small high schools to offer one year of shorthand. In many cases the criticism is justified. Few of the students go to larger communities where they can make job use of their learning. In many other cases, however, it is found that students going to larger towns will need this skill to secure a beginning position and therefore such training is quite justified.

The program should be based upon the circumstances of the local community, rather than those existing nation wide. Many of the students with one year of shorthand learned in a smaller school do get jobs, many more take a short intensive course in a business school in the nearby larger cities and thus become better qualified for office work.

It is true that a considerable number never use their skill. This, however, is also true in the large school. No studies have been made which show accurately that there is a significantly greater wastage in learning shorthand in smaller than in larger schools, it could be that a thorough study might, for various reasons, show a slight opposite trend. A certain amount of wastage is inevitable, and if it is not exces-

sive, the community can easily cope with it. Trial and error are a part of community living. While there is undoubtedly some waste in the learning of shorthand in both small and large schools, there is considerable evidence that it actually is smaller in shorthand than in most other specialized subjects.

The arbitrary aping of the large high school by the small high school is unjustified, however, the assumption that the program of the small school should be entirely different from that of the larger school is also arbitrary. Simple survey procedures can give a rough, and often quite satisfactory, indication of the scope of opportunity for business training in the small school.

WORK EXPERIENCE IN THE SMALL SCHOOL

Ideally, it is desirable to give an extensive program of work experience in the small high school, practically, this is often impossible. If a teacher who is usually quite inexperienced and relatively immature has a six period and sometimes seven period daily program, plus extra curricular activities, he is not in the position to undertake the extensive enterprise necessary to set up a good work-experience program. After a person has taught a six period day, with probably six different subjects, it is not only unfair but futile to ask that young teacher to develop a program of work experience. Where the teacher has become settled in the community, or where the local board of education is wise enough to relieve the teacher of some class work, of course, work experience is as invaluable in the small high school as it is in the larger urban community. However, this certainly will not be the typical situation for a long time to come.

Moreover, there is often more likelihood in the small community that the business students will secure informal work experience on their own initiative. In many cases this type of work experience is far more valuable than that which is secured in the rather arbitrary type secured in the formally organized, Federally reimbursed, type of work-experience program.

The development of a co-operative, part time, work-experience program takes time and effort. Unless it is well done, it is probably wiser not to attempt it at all. The school principal and the business teacher can encourage the parents and the local business community to make

available a large amount of nonschool-controlled, informal type of work experience. Sometimes this type has little learning value, but with direction and some awareness of its value, it can be a most significant alternate to formally organized school-type work experience.

TRAINING THE TEACHER FOR THE SMALL SCHOOL

As has been discussed, the business teacher in the one-business-teacher secondary school, instead of having a lighter program of extra-curricular activities, often has a far heavier program of co-curriculum activities to supervise than his colleague in the larger community. Typically, he is the sponsor of the school paper, often set up in printed form, quite generally, he has the school annual to produce in the spring term, when the problem of training people for job proficiency is very great. Very often he is responsible, under the general direction of the supervising principal, for developing good public relations between the local press and the school. The teacher who goes to the larger school, on the other hand, is frequently assigned no extracurricular activities during his first year of service. It is, therefore, all the more desirable for prospective teachers who are likely to teach in smaller high schools to receive training on a formal course basis and also on an extracurricular basis in the management, control, and actual practice of school activities, such as those which the beginning business teacher in the small high school is likely to undertake.

The business teacher in the small high school often has sole responsibility for the guidance of his students, as far as job placement is concerned. The prospective small high school teacher should, therefore, be given special opportunities for acquiring skill in determining local and regional opportunities for placement in stores and offices while he is being trained.

Notwithstanding the fact that the usual business program of the small high school is not satisfactory, the business teacher-training institution must prepare the prospective teacher for that which might be ideally wise, in addition to that which is now demanded. The perfectly trained teacher is of little value if he cannot get a job. Obviously this prospective teacher should be given evidence of what is a better program and how he can work to attain it. The fact remains that unless the beginning teacher can present all the major business subjects he will not

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get a chance to practice the results of his learning in the medium-sized school, let alone the small high school

HOME STUDY PROGRAMS AS AN AID TO THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

Home study programs may do much to enrich the offerings of the small high school. Courses in many subjects that could not be taught with the limited staff of the small high school are available in many home-study programs. The student does the work under the supervision of a member of the staff who is best acquainted with the course. The teacher checks to see that the student does his work, proctors the examination, and in general, acts as liaison with the organization giving the home study course.

At one time Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, Nebraska, and other states offered programs of this type. While they still seem to be available, the rapid consolidation of small high schools into larger units seems to be minimizing this type of work. In Pennsylvania, use is made of home-study programs primarily for the physically handicapped. However, there are still many areas in the United States in which such a home-correspondence program would be useful, and its use should not be discontinued until the high school with a graduating class of less than a hundred is a thing of the past. In some states, if a desired course is not available, the school district may purchase the materials of a recognized profit-making correspondence school. Thus, credit courses in secondary education can be provided at a reasonable per capita cost. Extensive use of home-study courses is made in Australia, supplemented by radio and television. While the population density of the United States is much higher than that of Australia, there are still many regions that could profit from a more intensive program.

CONCLUSION

There are several possible methods for dealing with the special problems of the small high school. One suggestion has merit: by the establishment of consolidated high schools the enrollment can be brought up to a minimum of 500. In many parts of the country the population is so dispersed that the gains are more than offset by the difficulties of school

resulted in a considerable improvement in the business programs of many smaller schools

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 How typical is the small high school in American education?
- 2 Is business education more typical or less typical of the small high school? Why?
- 3 What are some of the special problems of the business teacher of the small high school? Should special consideration be given to the small high school teacher in all teacher training schools? In certain teacher-training schools?
- 4 What is the unique problem of the small high school?
- 5 Secure some examples of business programs in small high schools other than those given in this chapter
- 6 Evaluate the proposal for a business program in the small high school as given in this chapter. Give your reasons for your evaluation
- 7 How effective can work experience be in the small high school? Is it more necessary or less necessary than in the larger schools?
- 8 What should be the special characteristics of teacher training in the field of business for the small high school?
- 9 How can the home study programs make business education in the small high school more effective
- 10 Indicate some of the solutions for the special difficulties of the small high school in its entire training program, in the field of business education

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CHAPTER XXIV

The Junior High School Business Program

THE JUNIOR high school, which includes the last two years of the elementary school and the first year of the high school, has now become an integral, although not a nation wide, part of the American educational system. The growth of the junior high schools has been rapid since World War I. The idea of the junior high school is not new. As early as 1890, the Committee of Ten advocated that secondary school training start after six years of elementary school work instead of after eight years as was then the general practice. This proposal was probably founded in considerable degree on the European school practice wherein those who go to secondary school transfer to this institution at the very beginning of adolescence.

Charles W. Elliot and his associates on the Committee of Ten hoped to reduce the length of preliminary training, so that candidates for professional school could begin at about the age of 20 instead of 22, and thereby commence professional practice about two years earlier. The European schools found this system very generally successful. The Committee of Ten, therefore, wished to achieve the same saving in the American schools. This suggestion was not favorably received.

The idea of the junior high school was revived in modified form by the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education just before World War I and has become very popular. It has not, however, resulted in a saving in learning time. As far as curriculum time is con-

cerned, the junior high school has become a substitute for the last two years of the traditional eight year school and the first year of the traditional four-year high school

WHY DID THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL EMERGE?

A more intelligent recognition of the peculiar characteristics of adolescents, and the desire to adjust education more closely to their needs, have influenced the development of the junior high school. Educators came to the conclusion that an intermediate school would reduce the student mortality that occurred in making the transfer from elementary to secondary school.

It is interesting to note that the growth of the junior high school has paralleled a decline of drop-outs among fifteen- and sixteen year-olds. To what extent this decline has been due to economic conditions and new legislation, rather than to an increasing appeal of the junior high school, however, cannot be precisely determined. Overcrowding in the traditional secondary school frequently has been alleviated by the use of special buildings for the junior high school. Desire for something new also has stimulated its growth.

At present, well over half of the children of junior high school age in urban areas and at least one half of those in rural areas attend junior high schools.

Although the junior high school has developed as a major educational institution in our school system, its future is still not permanently fixed. In some communities, the junior high school has been tried and abandoned. In other communities, there is a tendency to set it up as a four-year school, including two years, instead of one year, of the traditional high school. Under the latter conditions there is a tendency to call the school "the high school" and to attach the last two years of high school to the junior college and call this institution "the college."

THE PLACE OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

While the junior high school may have been started primarily as a means of saving time and secondarily as a basis for breaking up the unduly long period of the elementary school program, there is need for

a school that gives special attention to the problem of the adolescent. In this period of the child's life, growth is especially rapid. While it is true that all life is a process of transition, the transitional process in the case of the adolescent is especially acute. The elementary-school program is no longer sufficient to maintain his interest. Certainly the procedure of merely repeating in condensed form the work of the elementary school is most unsatisfactory. On the other hand, the adolescent is not ready for the formalized presentation of subject matter that is so characteristic of the high school program. Adolescents are neither old children nor young adults, they have characteristics of both, plus many of their own. In this stage of the child's development the acquisition of subject matter is secondary, while an opportunity for emotional growth under reasonably congenial circumstances is especially desirable. This does not mean that learnings should not take place in the junior high school. It does mean, however, that these learnings should be primarily nonacademic in nature as far as possible and should give opportunity for aesthetic learning, for developing skill in the manipulative processes.

This is usually not realized by the senior high school teacher accustomed to presenting formal subject matter. When, for example, the junior high school student goes on to senior high school, the teachers there give much concern to formal acquisition of knowledge. They feel that the junior high school has been lax if it has failed to develop adequate skills in the basic subjects.

During the 1930's, 1940's, and much of the 1950's, there was an even stronger tendency in the junior high school than in the senior high school to emphasize adjustment, emotional security, and personal growth at the expense of formal scholastic learning. While the shift toward more rigid and more formal subject matter requirements was more abrupt in the senior high school, the same tendency soon made itself felt in the junior high school. There is little doubt that the retreat of subject matter away from the junior high school and to the senior high school ended in the late 1950's. Subject matter which was being pushed up into the high school is again being placed back into the junior high school, and for those who can take it, with more emphasis on formal learning than ever before. The day of the glorification of the "child-centered" school, in which each child determined his own standards, has ended as a theoretical *deseratum*. In practice, the teacher with

common sense never did accept child determined standards as an extreme, nor will he accept arbitrary outside standards as a sole criterion. Nevertheless, the tendency to require definite subjects and to push for as much subject matter learning as possible will prevail. The demand is for English, social studies, science, art, music, and a minimum emphasis on the marginal subjects.

No person or group of persons can predict what the school program will be like ten years from now. The strong desire, however, to save time may yet reduce the period of training required for college entrance. If this tendency were to be realized, it is quite likely that the junior high school would be most affected, for it is the newest and possibly the most vulnerable link in the educational chain.

BUSINESS COURSES IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

At first, there was little inclination to institute business courses in the junior high schools. But as a tendency to transfer the work of the traditional secondary school to the junior high school developed, beginning courses in shorthand and bookkeeping were shifted from the tenth or eleventh grade to the eighth or ninth grade.

It soon became obvious to administrators, however, that these subjects had no vocational justification in the junior high school. Not only are students too young to understand their content, but also, even if they do learn the material, by the time they are in a position to utilize these skills, the skills have been forgotten. Instruction in formal occupational subjects has been unsatisfactory in many junior high schools, and in these cases the instruction has had to be repeated in the senior high school, causing unnecessary duplication of effort, disinterest on the part of the students, and inefficiency in the educational program.

There was, therefore, a strong tendency to modify these courses to meet the needs of junior high school students. Courses in junior high school bookkeeping and shorthand were developed by textbook publishers. This procedure was found to be not too successful, and the attempts to set up special courses in shorthand on the junior high school level generally have been dropped. In some schools the work has been retained as a phase of a tryout program, which will be considered later in this chapter. The elimination of bookkeeping as a formal junior high school subject has been much slower. There are, however, very few

junior high schools in which formal courses in bookkeeping still persist, though record keeping courses are not uncommon.

Attempts were also made to include commercial geography, business arithmetic, and other social business subjects in the junior high school. Parallel to these subjects were the regular courses in arithmetic and in geography. These subjects have been so vitalized by the inclusion of the business applications of arithmetic and the economic aspects of geography that there is little difference between the traditional subjects and the business course. Consequently, the special business subjects have also been eliminated. Arithmetic and geography, as now taught in junior high schools, usually stress business situations and thus give all students an understanding of business.

Typewriting Typewriting has survived in the junior high school because it involves manipulative skills that appeal to students of that age. There is, of course, a growing tendency to teach typewriting as a nonvocational subject. As the personal use aspect of typewriting is steadily increasing, the course may well be given in the junior high school. Furthermore, as the mechanism of the typewriter is simplified, more machines will be purchased for home and professional use. This does not imply, however, that typewriting should be a required subject in junior high school, for typewriters are not yet available in a sufficient number of homes to justify this step.

Although typewriting in the junior high school may stress personal use, it should not be taught superficially or by untrained teachers. Typewriting instruction in the junior high school is justified only if it offers opportunities for the acquisition of skills that may be used as the basis for advanced training in the senior high school, where the subject is given vocationally.

The place of a course in typewriting, then, is assured on the junior high school level. The subject matter can easily be made to agree with the objectives of the junior high school. Typewriting is a manipulative skill, and we increasingly realize that the development of such skills is desirable at the junior high school level. It can be correlated with other subjects, for example, pupils can work out their school newspaper at the typewriter and mimeograph it as a part of their typing instruction. Thus the subject also lends itself to the unification of learning emphasized in the high school. It can be learned at an elementary level.

and gives many opportunities for immediate use. Typewriting is consequently a popular subject in the junior high school and undoubtedly will continue to draw considerable enrollment.

SUBSEQUENT DEVELOPMENT

In the third stage in the development of business training in the junior high school a single course, bringing together the various phases of business education, was instituted. In some localities, this course consisted of little more than a fusion of penmanship, spelling, and arithmetic, in others, it supplemented general business and clerical training. Efforts were made to co-ordinate the content, formal drill in the tool subjects was replaced by emphasis on business relationships. In Philadelphia and other cities where the directors of commercial education supervised penmanship instruction, this co-ordinated program developed intelligently. It is interesting to observe in this connection that studies reveal that penmanship, arithmetic, and spelling can be taught efficiently when fused with the rest of the content of this course.

An increasing appreciation of junior business training was manifested. The emphasis on different objectives for the course varied with the schools. When either subsidiary guidance or general business-information objectives were stressed, the elementary portion of the subject was frequently required of all seventh- or eighth-grade pupils. In addition, many schools offered the advanced portion as an elective clerical training course.

THE ELEMENTARY BUSINESS COURSE

This comparatively new subject of elementary or junior business fits uniquely into the junior high school curriculum. The subject has had an interesting history. In 1919, Frederick G. Nichols made a survey of junior commercial occupations in sixteen states.¹ He discovered that junior workers (those less than seventeen years of age) were not employed as bookkeepers and stenographers. He, therefore, advocated the establishment of a course in junior clerical training. Students who

¹ Published by the Federal Board for Vocational Education, June, 1920. O. P.

left school to take jobs would be better prepared because of this training. On the other hand, those who remained in school would be better fitted for advanced business study.

Nichols's survey had considerable influence in the creation of junior business courses, although several had been given before his book was published. This type of junior clerical training, however, was not long retained in the curriculum.

One of the early advocates of a revision in the objectives of junior business training was Seth B. Carkin, one time director of business education in Rochester, New York, where much early experimentation with the subject took place. He insisted that the immediate vocational objective be minimized, and that its pre-vocational and general-use values be emphasized. Under the leadership of Carkin and others, the subject matter soon changed in character.

The second phase in the development of junior business was characterized by a tendency to imitate the junior high school science courses, particularly general science. Just as the early teaching of general science included a little physics, chemistry, biology, and the like, so the composite course in business training at first included a smattering of almost every subject in the business program.

Some of these topics were highly encyclopedic and not too well integrated. Nevertheless, this phase marked a definite advance and resulted in the formation of "Introduction to Business Syllabus in the State of New York of 1930." Carkin was also a strong leader in this development. This syllabus comprised an integrated course of study dealing with the functions of business and was the source of existing courses in introduction to business and general business.

PRESENT OBJECTIVES OF INTRODUCTION TO BUSINESS

This subject as now conceived has several major objectives.

- 1 It aims to give students an elementary understanding of business and to show that this aspect of human endeavor has, like other social institutions, both desirable and undesirable characteristics.

- 2 It delineates the manner in which business services may be used and attempts to make the student a more skillful user of these services.

- 3 It emphasizes a guidance program. It answers such questions as: What are the various business occupations into which a boy or girl may

enter? What is an accountant? How much salary does he receive? What kind of training should he be given? What is the tenure of this kind of position? What are its desirable and undesirable features? What are the opportunities for women in accountancy and other occupations?

4 It serves as an introduction to other courses in business

CONTENT

Elementary business, which should perhaps be required of all ninth-year students, should have only general use objectives. It cannot offer job training and should not pretend to do so. Clerical practice is a specific vocational subject, whereas introduction to business should concern itself with only those vocational situations that are applicable to everyone.

There are a number of serious fallacies regarding the training for junior occupations. One is that training is attempted in a dozen or more tasks, whereas the student will probably obtain a position in which he will be asked to perform only a single function. Another is that all students in introduction to business are assumed to be receiving training that leads to a job.

It cannot even be proved that introduction to business prepares for training in advanced business. The only way to prepare a person for advanced work is to strive for that aim directly, rather than by piecemeal training in numerous routine occupations. Not that routine jobs are unimportant, but the junior high school can scarcely afford the time to prepare students for them.

THE SUBJECT MATTER OF INTRODUCTION TO BUSINESS AS REVEALED IN TEXTBOOKS

Probably the best way to arrive at the content of a secondary school subject is to analyze the textbooks on the subject. The American teacher leans heavily on textbooks for his teaching materials. He often uses the text as a syllabus, in most cases following its sequence of topics.

The following is a list of topics found in five recently published textbooks on introduction to business.

Determining what business is
Consuming and buying

Spending (budgeting) and paying
 Banking use of
 Using Credit
 Reducing risk (personal and property insurance)
 Saving (government, banks, home, stocks and bonds)
 Advertising and selling understanding of
 Filing
 Traveling
 Communicating mailing writing telephoning, telegraphing, etc
 Shipping and transporting
 Being a good economic citizen
 Managing (personal life, home, business)

This tabulation indicates that while some texts may still emphasize material of doubtful value, most have gone a long way toward presenting an understanding of business in terms of the present economic situation. Topics are still too often treated as isolated units by some authors, and little evidence of agreement as to sequence can be found. Nevertheless, the subject is less frequently treated as a melange of bookkeeping, arithmetic, vocational material, and a smattering of business practice, as was usual in earlier editions.

In the New York State Syllabus on Introduction to Business the following major topics are recommended with suggestions for the number of weeks to be spent on each.

It is explained in the syllabus that

Introduction to business should be taught by a skillful business teacher and should be considered one of the most important subjects assigned to that instructor. In very small schools in which no business teacher is employed and in which introduction to business is offered as an elective to ninth grade pupils, the subject should be taught by the most businesslike member of the high school faculty. Usually in such schools it should be possible to assign the subject to a teacher who has completed a college minor in business education.

As its title indicates this course provides an introductory study of business. Its primary purpose is not the preparation of students for junior positions in offices and stores, its objectives are not essentially vocational. The student who completes the course, however, should possess a satisfactory usable knowledge of the activities in the world of business and its contributing agencies.

The major aim of introduction to business is the development of a realization that business and successful living are closely allied. Students should realize that good management in business is similar in most respects to the able administration of their own personal business affairs. Each student should be encouraged to consider his home, school, and community from a business point of view with the hope that he will become a better home manager and citizen. He should develop broad economic concepts that will help him carry on a sound savings program, invest his money wisely, protect himself against common risks, and use credit judiciously.

Another important contribution of the course is the opportunity it presents for educational and vocational guidance. Through the study of banking, insurance, investing, selling, purchasing and other topics included in the course outline, the student should gain a broad view of the vocational opportunities which the business world opens up to him.²

Here are the topics suggested for study in New York State

Meaning of business	Organization for management
Communication	Purchasing
Thrift, savings, investments	ordering, receiving,
Insurance	storing
Bank services	Methods of payment
Travel information	Selling
and facilities	selling, advertising,
Recording and filing	billing, shipping
Types of business ownership	Guidance—educational
	and vocational

RECOMMENDED CLASSROOM EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES³

It is suggested that the following equipment and supplies be available in the introduction to business classroom

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 Postal manual | 4 Up to-date dictionaries |
| 2. Telephone directories | 5 An atlas |
| 3 Equipment for practical | 6 An almanac |
| telephone instruction | 7 A gazetteer |

² *Introduction to Business Syllabus* The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department Bureau of Business and Distributive Education, Albany, N Y., 1959, page 8

³ *Op cit*, p. 12

- | | |
|--|---|
| 8 One or more secretarial handbooks | 14 Typical banking forms |
| 9 A city directory | 15 Wrapping supplies |
| 10 Sample insurance policies | 16 Projection equipment suitable for motion pictures and/or filmstrips |
| 11 Timetables | |
| 12 Individual filing supplies (elementary in nature) | 17 From three to five copies of several basic texts in introduction to business |
| 13 Telegraph blanks | |

RELATION OF COURSES IN ECONOMIC CITIZENSHIP TO JUNIOR BUSINESS

Many junior high schools offer economic citizenship as a phase of the social studies, joining it with a full semester course in community civics to comprise a full year's program. Economic citizenship has many characteristics of the improved course in introduction to business described in this chapter. The development of this course possibly has slowed down the growth of the business course. While it is difficult to estimate the number of students enrolled in junior business, there is little doubt that it ranks in popularity with bookkeeping, shorthand, and typewriting. This is due in part to the fact that the subject is offered earlier in the curriculum and is treated in some junior high schools as a core-curriculum subject.

All are agreed that more education in economics must be made available to students who now receive little such training. The future of introduction to business in the business program in the junior high school, and its relation to economic citizenship as a social studies course, has by no means been settled. This is a major problem for business educators to solve. Introduction to business still duplicates the work of economic citizenship. In some junior high schools pupils take both subjects at one time, in others, they take neither. The development of an advanced business training course will affect the subject matter in the junior course, for a careful gradation of the subject matter is necessary in order to avoid gross overlapping. The tendency toward the socialization of the bookkeeping course may also necessitate changes in the content of junior business.

In many junior high schools, brief exploratory exposures are offered pupils as a basis for selecting their senior high school curricula. Six- or eight week courses are given. Thus, in a one-year course, pupils can get

from four to six and sometimes even eight exposures to different types of subject matter. Pupils are given a brief general language course, a short exposure to several different forms of shopwork (increasingly being given to girls), and an exposure to home economics (increasingly being given to boys).

Several interesting programs have been set up for an exploratory course of this type based on business courses. Typing, shorthand, bookkeeping, and retailing are included. Usually an effort is made to attain some integration of subject matter by using office practices as an element common to all units. It should be realized that these exposures are not given to achieve primary learnings but to give students some acquaintanceship with the type of subject matter, so that they may choose their senior high school curricula more wisely. Whether this can be done in a six- to eight week treatment is debatable. Business skills have not been included in these exploratory programs in many cases because business teachers have been unwilling to advocate such inclusion or have failed to adapt their subject to these needs. Where business subjects have been included, they have proved to be as satisfactory for prevocational choice making as other subjects. Business educators should participate in the experimentation in exposure tryout courses rather than remain aloof.

THE FUTURE STATUS OF BUSINESS SUBJECTS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Enrollment in introduction to business grew rapidly during the 1920's and 1930's. In more recent years, however, it has become more stationary, in fact, in some areas the enrollment has decreased. There apparently has been a failure to make use of business-education experiences on the junior high school level to the extent to which they fit into the junior high school pattern of instruction. All too often the fault is due to the fact that business teachers in the junior high school are interested in teaching shorthand, typing, and bookkeeping, and know little about the objectives of the junior high school.

Even more frequently, these teachers are teachers of shorthand who know little about the general nature of the functions of business and frankly do not want to know too much about them. Naturally, they are not attracted by the exuberant activity of the junior high school pupil

and his lack of concern for organized learning of subject matter. They frankly dislike the subject and look forward to being released at the earliest possible moment from presenting it. They look upon transfer to the senior high school as a promotion in status.

A book on junior high school education makes no reference to business education of any type in the entire discussion. Not even typing is mentioned. Evidently the authors are not conscious of the opportunity for development among junior high school students in business educational experiences. Nevertheless, a survey of the programs of junior high schools will show that many aspects of business have been made integral parts of the total unified core program of the junior high school. For example, in the social studies core of the junior high school, such units as trade will be found to be receiving prominent attention. Moreover, typing, record keeping, advertising, banking, cafeteria business service, and similar business activities will be found among the more usual and more satisfying pupil core-curricular activities.

Thus, while formalized attention to the junior aspects of business training may be losing ground, the consideration of business as an aspect of our social system is receiving increasing consideration. In some respects, therefore, the tendency to drop the formal presentation of business subjects in the junior high school has its desirable aspects. It, nevertheless, is unfortunate that the interpretations of the functions of business are left in the hands of teachers who have little knowledge of their application to our daily life, and even less interest in them.

The entire program of the junior high school is more and more being recognized as core-curriculum subject matter. On this basis there is little place for typing or elementary business, excepting as they become integrated into the core program. Moreover, in spite of the urgent pleas of business teachers for over a quarter of a century, only a minority of business students take business training in the junior high school or elsewhere, and only a small fraction of other students take it as an elective. It probably would be unwise for business teachers to accept the integration of business training, and possibly even typing, into the core at the ninth grade. Instead business teachers might set up prevocational business training in the tenth grade course based on core learnings. This course would be organized to serve the particular interest of students who want to learn more about business than can be secured in the core program.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 What are the special aims of the junior high school?
- 2 What are the possible contributions of business education to these aims?
- 3 What pupil needs should be considered in planning business courses?
- 4 What does Lyon regard as the function of business courses in the junior high school?
- 5 What opportunity does Nichols believe should be afforded boys and girls in the junior high school 'to secure exploratory experiences and try out experiences in the field of commerce'?
- 6 What justification is there for placing economic citizenship and elementary business in the junior high school?
- 7 What are the changing trends in elementary business? How, if at all, is the development of advanced business as a senior high school course influencing the content of elementary business?
- 8 To what extent is typewriting justified in the junior high school? To what extent is it now taught in the junior high school? What will be the outcome of the attempt to teach reading and writing by the use of the type writer in elementary school?
- 9 What has been the success of exploratory tryout courses in business at the junior high school level? Obtain the opinion of teachers. Use the *Business Education Index* for references.
- 10 What are the problems of articulation in business education between junior and senior high schools?
- 11 What are the probable developments in business education in the junior high school?
- 12 Ask a group of business teachers why they like or do not like to teach junior business training. Explain these opinions. Ask a group of learners in junior high school whether they like to take junior business training. Explain the reasons for these answers.

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CHAPTER XXV

The Private Business School

THE PRIVATE business school was the first institution devoted exclusively to business education. The date of organization of the first school is not known, but there is evidence that by 1820 several teachers were offering instruction in bookkeeping and penmanship. R. M. Barlett is said to have been one of the first organizers of a private business school. He is known to have established schools in Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Cincinnati. James Gordon Bennett probably maintained a similar school in New York City around 1824. James A. Bennett also organized a school, probably in 1833, although he seems to have given instruction in bookkeeping on an informal basis before then. Benjamin Franklin Foster taught penmanship, published a book on the subject, and attempted to give training to women in several eastern cities during the second quarter of the nineteenth century. George W. Eastman, of Rochester, New York, was another pioneer in the field of private business schools. The existence of these schools is an indication that the apprenticeship system of training workers for business occupations, which had never been widely adopted, was declining to the point of extinction.

The Itinerant Penmanship Professor

A forerunner of the private business school was the itinerant teacher of handwriting. One of the fads in the middle of the nineteenth century was a flourishing and elaborate handwriting. Itinerant teachers would migrate from town to town and offer to make skilled penmen of anyone

who would take their course for one or two weeks. Some were pure fakers. Many, however, did their best, and if they could not make elegant penmen out of their students, they at least gave them the foundation upon which elegance could be developed with practice. Teachers still talk a great deal about the need of penmanship in business, but practically they limit their training to lip service. The typewriter, duplicating machine, and bookkeeping machine have decreased the absolute necessity for good handwriting. In many ways, this loss of more than mere recognition is unfortunate. While flourish in handwriting is an art well lost, clarity in handwriting is still much to be desired.

It is interesting to note that in a considerable number of states extensive use is made of itinerant teachers in developing the program of adult distributive education in connection with the George Barden Act, thus carrying on consciously or unconsciously, the example of the early teacher of handwriting.

HISTORY OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS

There is little definite evidence of the number of persons and of the quality of training given in the private business schools in the pre Civil War period. About all that is known is the kind of advertising they did in the newspapers. Educational enterprise was then rampant, so it may be presumed that many, if not most, of the advertisements for business training never actually resulted in training and that most of these schools existed for a comparatively short time. Private business schools were prevalent in Europe, especially in England, even before the Napoleonic Wars, and likely the American private business school of this period was, in part, an imitation of those. Although many premature attempts may have been made, it is probable that private business schools did not become really accepted and prosperous institutions in this country until shortly before the Civil War. Educational historians with inadequate training in historical research are too prone to accept newspaper advertisements of private business schools as *prima facie* evidence of the existence of flourishing and efficient training facilities.

According to R. C. Spencer, writing in 1888,¹ the earliest step toward

¹ "A Brief History of the Business Education Associations of America" *Proceedings Business Educators Association* 1888 pp 6-8

formal organization was taken about 1850 by R. C. Bacon who founded Bacon's Mercantile Colleges in Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Madison. This unified management lasted only a short time. The Bryant-Stratton chain was started in Cleveland in 1852. By 1865 this chain was composed of 44 schools in 44 cities, all under the same general management. The chain was a connected partnership arrangement, which provided reciprocity between the colleges. In 1863 the first meeting of the proprietors of the chain was held in New York, and in the following year a conference of the leading teachers took place. At a general convention in Chicago in 1865, James A. Garfield, who later became President of the United States, made a powerful speech in favor of business education.

Dissatisfaction began to grow among the proprietors, and even before H. D. Stratton's death in 1867, protest meetings had been held. The interests of the general organization were then transferred to the local partners, and the general partnership dissolved. H. B. Bryant and H. D. Stratton had intended to establish, and for a time almost succeeded, a school in every city with a population of 10,000 or over. Their schools more or less observed a uniform system of instruction. Training was given in bookkeeping, penmanship, business arithmetic, the rudiments of commercial law, and allied subjects. Each school was under the control of a local manager or resident partner in the firm. Evidently, provision was also made for taking independently established schools into the system.

A program of interchangeable scholarships permitted students to transfer from one school to another. The result was that students often enrolled in schools in small towns at low fees, then transferred to the larger cities where opportunities for future employment were better. The income went to the small-town school and the burden of training to the school in the larger community. When a school was successful, the resident manager or junior partner was loath to give up his profits to the chain. Therefore he soon became restive under the regimentation that the central control enforced.

The Bryant and Stratton chain of schools and smaller chains patterned after them rendered efficient service and in some ways set a standard for training that has not been surpassed. Even today, the successor schools of this chain, under the same or similar names, still exist in several cities. It is not an exaggeration to say that this chain had a profound in-

fluence upon the development of business education in the United States

A great opportunity for the private business school came during the period of reconstruction following the Civil War. Thousands of young men, mustered out of the armies where they had tasted various experiences, did not care to go back to the farms. They wanted speedy and efficient preparation for some kind of employment in the cities. The opportunities on the farm had, moreover, declined somewhat because of the increased farm efficiency resulting from Civil War manpower shortages. The best opportunities were apparently to be found in bookkeeping and related clerical occupations. This desire for rehabilitation resulted in a rapid growth of private business schools.

With only occasional losses during the bitter depression years of the 1870s the private business school continued to grow. Some of these schools were exceedingly efficient. Many of them had well-paid teachers, excellent promotional plans, informal but sensible entrance requirements, and sound standards for graduation. They utilized most of the modern methods of teaching such as the project method, student activity, and visual aids. They did not realize that they were the forerunners of a significant change in the spirit of education. Their sources of inspiration may have been Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Herbart, but it is also possible that their techniques were indigenous. They faced a practical learning situation and adapted their native American ingenuity to meeting the need. Many of their procedures are only now being rediscovered.

Here is a rich source for useful study for the future educational historian. Exact data are not available for the numbers of students enrolled. The annual reports of the Commissioner of Education of the United States collected since 1869 are admittedly inadequate. Not all schools submitted data, on the other hand, many exaggerated their enrollments. Taken as a total, however, the steady increase in numbers reported, with the exception of the very deep depression years of the 1870s and early 1890s, clearly indicates the growth of formalized classroom business education. There was an enormous turnover in stenographic occupations. Young men stenographers rapidly found advancement to official or semi-official positions. Women who were employed as stenographers usually left when they married. Society was not yet willing to recognize the right of married women to have gainful employ-

ment This situation caused a constant increase in private-business-school enrollment, which carried over into the public schools

The increase of business students in the secondary schools did not materially halt the growth of private business schools Just before World War I, however, the teaching of business subjects in secondary schools improved, and this improvement temporarily checked the expansion of private schools The war itself reversed the trend In less than two years, over two million people were trained for army service Thousands of them were instructed in shorthand, typewriting, and allied subjects At the same time, thousands of male stenographers and bookkeepers had to be replaced by women This emergency supplied the private schools with a superb opportunity for service, since the public schools at that time were not adapted to the training of adults In meeting this demand, the capacities of the private schools were taxed to the utmost

After World War I, the Federal Government participated in the program of educational rehabilitation and paid the tuition fees for veterans Again, private business schools profited

PRESENT STATUS OF PRIVATE BUSINESS SCHOOLS

In the post World War II period, enrollment, greatly increased due in part to the opportunity for veterans to get free tuition and maintenance under the GI Bill By 1950 this cause for large enrollments had been fairly well dissipated There were in 1960 probably around 1,000 business schools in the United States with an enrollment of about 200,000 students The great majority of these students were young women, for at the present time the greater part of the training in the private business schools consists of shorthand and typewriting Before 1900, most students in private business schools took the bookkeeping program, and of these students the great majority were men In fact, in the earliest periods of private business school enterprise, as has been indicated before, it was rather difficult to encourage young women to enroll in business subjects

In spite of the fact that even in the 1880's there were some managers and owners of private business schools who preferred the system of periodic admittance, more than one-half the schools now permit entrance into the work at any time Approximately 25 per cent of the schools enroll their students once a week, 10 per cent permit their students to begin once a semester, and a smaller percentage permit enrollment once

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a month. Many schools use several or all of these periods for enrollment, depending on the students' purposes.

Private business schools usually sell their services by the month, but a small number charge by the course. In general, private business school administrators prefer the system of paying costs by the month. There is some advantage to this procedure for the student, inasmuch as he can drop the program as soon as he has completed the work and achieved adequate standards, whereas, if he is slow, he can take more time. On the other hand, the objective of the training program is the ability to do work on the job, and it is this service, fundamentally, that the private business school offers.

In 1960, the usual tuition rates were around \$40 to \$50 a month although quite a number of schools were outside this range in both directions.

The number of students enrolled ranges from a comparatively small number of students to over 500 in a school. The average-size school enrolls under 200 students. In the postwar period there was a considerable increase in enrollment till about 1950 and since then some decrease. The typical student is now a high school graduate, and in many cases, a college graduate. There is approximately one teacher to every 25 students.

While some schools make excessive use of field workers, who visit the homes of prospective students and persuade them and their parents of the advantages of enrollment, this tendency has decreased in recent years. A certain amount of promotional work of this type may be justified. However, it is a serious problem, for it consumes a large part of tuition costs, encourages false promises, and persuades some to attend who should not.

AN EXAMPLE OF A PRIVATE BUSINESS SCHOOL

Goldey Beacon School of Business is the result of the consolidation of two well-established schools. Goldey College was founded in 1886 and Beacon College in 1900. They combined forces in 1951. Several programs are offered on the one year and two-year level. The two-year programs result in an associate in arts degree, thus indicating a marked similarity to the junior or community college.

Here is the two-year executive-secretary curriculum.

EXECUTIVE SECRETARIAL CURRICULUM

Estimated Time. 4 semesters Credits Required 79

Associate in Arts (A A) Degree

FIRST YEAR

First Semester Credits

Principles of accounting 1	4
Business mathematics	6
Principles of business English 1, 2	6
Penmanship	1
Law of contracts and negotiable instruments	3
Principles of typewriting	2

Second Semester

Principles of accounting 2	4
Shorthand theory 1	4
Law of sales, bailments, agency, real property	3
Business correspondence	3
Word study and vocabulary building	3
Business psychology	3
Typewriting	2

SECOND YEAR

First Semester

Shorthand theory 2	4
Shorthand dictation and transcription	4
Typewriting	2
Business machines	2
Elective	3
Secretarial English techniques	3

Second Semester

Advanced dictation and transcription	4
Filing systems	2
Typewriting (60 wpm)	1
Secretarial office procedure	4
Elective	3
Business behavior	3

Second year electives Credits and collections, business organization, salesmanship, investments, economics, money and banking, public relations, insurance, introduction to office automation, corporation accounting

By contrast, the one-year stenographic program necessarily offers a more limited opportunity for training

STENOGRAPHIC CURRICULUM

Estimated Time 40-45 Weeks Credits Required 41

Emphasizing shorthand, filing, and typewriting the Stenographic Curriculum furnishes the minimum training required for beginning employment

<i>First Semester</i>	<i>Credits</i>
Shorthand theory 1	4
Shorthand theory 2	4
Principles of business English 1, 2	6
Principles of typewriting	4
Filing systems	2
<i>Second Semester</i>	
Shorthand dictation and transcription	4
Advanced shorthand dictation and transcription	4
Business correspondence	3
Business terminology	3
Stenographic office procedures	4
Typewriting (55 wpm)	3

Similar programs are provided in business machines accounting business administration medical secretarial work, and allied fields

ABUSES

In earlier days, many private business schools offered dubious education. Some charged inadequate tuition fees. Others spent so much of their income on advertising (and some still do) that little remained for instructional purposes. Most schools admitted pupils whenever they applied for admission, without considering their age and previous education. Some schools without entrance requirements employed solicitors who worked on a commission basis and had no other connection with the school.

High pressure advertising and salesmanship was, and in a few cases, still is common. These salesmen solicited elementary as well as high school pupils, creating a desire in youngsters to leave school and take short courses that would enable them to enter business and earn their own living. Misrepresentation abounded and here and there still does. Overzealous solicitors guaranteed positions at the completion of short courses, regardless of the ability of the school to carry out such promises.

The fly by night school, the inefficient school, the well meaning but incompetent school, and the inadequately financed school have, in general, disappeared. Only those schools that render efficient service and possess a reputation for obtaining positions for their students have, as a rule, survived. Unfortunately a few questionable schools succeed on the basis of considerable misrepresentation. They do the whole field of busi-

ness school education much harm. There is little question that, in some cases, it is the honest administrator who suffers.

THE HONEST AND EFFICIENT PRIVATE BUSINESS SCHOOL RENDERS AN INVALUABLE SERVICE

Many private business schools render efficient service, employ teachers of high caliber, refuse to take immature persons who are not ready for vocational training, charge adequate fees for their service, and spend the major part of their income on instruction. These schools do not guarantee positions and often reject applicants unlikely to obtain jobs.

During the depression of the 1930s, many capable college graduates, who could not find positions in the field for which they had been trained, enrolled in private business schools, completed intensive courses, and then obtained secretarial positions. This, consequently, narrowed the opportunities for the high school business graduate and for the products of less selective private schools.

Opportunities for private business schools abound in many urban centers that serve as "area capitals" for surrounding rural communities. Large numbers of rural high school students who wish to become stenographers or bookkeepers need additional technical training, which they frequently obtain in the nearest city that is large enough to have an established private business school. Institutions of this type perform a genuine service for both the student and the community.

Some persons object to this training on the ground that it tends to send students to the larger cities, where there are greater employment possibilities. Since this is an inevitable trend, it is desirable that students possess at least marketable skills when they seek their fortune in the larger urban centers. Small communities may object to paying for training workers for large communities, but this objection does not pertain to private schools, since their income is received directly from their students or their students' parents.

THE WORK OF THE PRIVATE BUSINESS SCHOOLS

Private schools build their reputation on their results, that is, the success of the students whom they train. Hence, these schools maintain a close association with the local business organizations, planning their

courses to meet the needs of the students and the specified requirements of the prospective employers. Some business organizations believe that it is worth their while to pay the tuition of employees at private schools.

Private schools concentrate on the training most needed by the community and the student. In addition to building the requisite skills, the curricula often include economics, accounting, management, finance, insurance, credit and collection, and marketing. Only the larger public schools in the metropolitan centers can offer so broad a program of business education.

STATE CONTROL

Certain state departments of education—Michigan, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Arkansas, and Oregon, for example—require private schools to register with them. A certificate of approval is granted to those meeting the requirements. The idea is spreading that any kind of school that performs a public service should be controlled by a public agency. Although some proprietors of private schools rigorously oppose this development, many others welcome this state control because they believe it will lessen undesirable and unfair competition.

In New York, the registration of private business schools is on a voluntary basis. If a school is solvent, has effective equipment, employs teachers with substantially the same academic background as public-school teachers, and offers an adequate program of study, it may register with the State Department of Education. Certification carries certain obligations and burdens, but on the other hand, it gives the school a standing with the public that becomes a valuable asset. Not all private business schools have taken the opportunity to register, an act which frequently carries with it the privilege of giving the State Regents examinations. These examinations have considerable significance in New York. It is surprising that so little progress has been made in the registration procedure, for the system was started in New York at the beginning of the century.

Pennsylvania has a unique system of state control and is considered by some as the best. There are minimum standards for school plant, equipment, administration, program requirements, and standards of instruction.

Because the standards for teacher qualification, advertising, and general standards are especially interesting they are presented here.

General Standards

- 1 Diplomas shall be issued only upon the completion of standard courses
- 2 A separate license is required for each location of each school, class, or branch thereof
- 3 All school, class, and agent licenses must be renewed annually
- 4 The content of certificate courses and classes must be presented to the State Board for consideration and approval
- 5 Schools or classes must not grant scholarships, or offer premiums or special inducements to prospective students or enrollees
- 6 Failure to maintain tuition rates as published is grounds for suspension or revocation of the license of a school or class
- 7 No officer or representative of a school or class shall solicit any student to leave any school or class in which he is enrolled or is in attendance
- 8 A school or class or representative thereof, must not guarantee positions or employment to prospective students

Teacher Qualifications

- 1 Each teacher must be a person of good moral character
- 2 Each teacher must be at least eighteen (18) years of age
- 3 Each teacher must possess a teacher's certificate issued by the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction and valid for teaching business education subjects in the public schools of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, or
- 4 Be a graduate of an approved college or university with a minimum of twelve (12) semester hours in the subjects that the applicant intends to teach
- 5 Teachers who possess qualifications which are substantially equivalent to the requirements prescribed herein for teachers may individually be approved by the Board

Advertising

- 1 The words "college" and "university" must not be used in any publication when the same are not authorized by law
- 2 Printed catalogs, bulletins, or prospectus information must be specific

with respect to prerequisite training requirements for admission to the school and courses, the curricula, the contents of courses, graduation requirements, tuition and other fees, the specific terms for payment of tuition and other fees, refunds and allowances for withdrawals and unavoidable or extended absences

3 Each school or class must use its licensed name

4 A school or class must not solicit students to enroll by means of "blind" advertisements or advertisements in the "help wanted" or other employment columns of newspapers and publications

5 It is fraudulent advertising for a school or class to advertise that it is endorsed by colleges, universities, or other institutions of higher learning unless it is a fact

The standards for instruction in the Pennsylvania Regulations for shorthand and typing are quite formal. They are the usual 50 words a minute for 15 minutes in typing, and 96 words a minute for 3 minutes in shorthand. Since such academic and nonjob standards are typical in most schools, it is probably unreasonable to expect a conservative group to show the path toward real job standards.

SELF REGULATION

A program of study in the problems of the private business school has been undertaken by a group of schools under the designation of the Business Education Research Associates. They have provided a group of standards similar to those set up by the Pennsylvania school authorities. These standards are administered by the Accrediting Commission for Business Schools. This Accrediting Commission for Business Schools is a creation of, and is sponsored by, the National Association and Council of Business Schools. The number of schools that participate in the accrediting program are a minority of the total number of private or independent schools in the United States. Some of the urge toward accreditation was created by the desire to enroll Korean veterans in the early 1950's. The Office of Education, in order to avoid the shocking abuses that had prevailed after World Wars I and II, demanded some form of accreditation. That urgent need abated by acceptance of state education department recognition.

Nevertheless, the emphasis placed on accreditation by publicly recognized schools has greatly accelerated the urge toward some form of gen-

erally recognized and publicly approved form of accreditation that goes beyond mere membership in an association that automatically gives "accreditation" on payment of fees. Private business school men are working toward a functional solution of the problem.

For example, the Operating Committee of the Accrediting Commission for Business Schools specifies the following conditions for eligibility for evaluation and accreditation:

Eligibility for Evaluation and Accreditation

To be eligible for accreditation an institution must be able to give an affirmative answer to the following questions:

- 1 Is the institution predominantly organized for the purpose of training for business careers?
- 2 Is the educational program reasonably one of post secondary level?
- 3 Is education the principal activity of this institution?
- 4 Is the program of the institution a residence program?
- 5 Has the institution and its program been established for a period of 3 years or more?
- 6 If the institution seeking accreditation is a department or division within an educational institution having other objectives, is it separately administered?
- 7 Is the institution legally organized and authorized to conduct its programs under the laws of its own state and community? Where the laws of the state are silent on such matters the institution must be appropriately organized, i.e., its organization and practices must conform to accepted organization and practices for comparable institutions in the same general geographical location.
- 8 Does the institution offer a program of at least two years in length or if it is a shorter program (but in no case less than one school year in length), is the program a reasonable part of a two-year post secondary program?
- 9 Is the nature of this program such that it does not have access to accreditation by another well recognized accrediting agency?

THE KEY SERVICE OF THE PRIVATE BUSINESS SCHOOL

The private business school has been the backbone of business education, although subjected to a great deal of unjustifiable, as well as

justifiable, criticism. Its faults are no greater than those of other social institutions. It possesses great opportunities and sets the pace for the secondary school, providing the latter with a model of efficiency. As such, the better type of private business school should not be regarded as an undesirable competitor of the public school. Many private institutions demand that their students possess at least a secondary school education, others will not take students with less than a college degree. Private institutions will continue to offer training that many public schools cannot undertake.

The people of the United States recognize and approve of the profit motive. If a private school can render a service equal, and in some cases superior, to that of the public school, and if students find sufficient justification for enrolling in it, then it is a worthy element in the American system of education.

THE SCOPE OF THE CURRICULUM

Private-business-school administrators have always had the problem of deciding how far to expand their curriculum. The fundamental justification for the private business school is that it gives specialized occupational training in the shortest possible time—at least as efficiently as the publicly controlled and sponsored schools, if not more efficiently. Nevertheless, private school owners realize that if the full time training program is made up of only immediate job needs, the students' general background will be undesirably limited. Private business-school men therefore, usually intersperse broadening subjects, such as business law and business ethics, in a specific vocational program. This problem is by no means a new one. In 1889, S. S. Packard in an address before the Business Educators' Association of America stressed the limitations of business-college work.² He pointed out that business colleges, as private business schools were then usually called, had made many efforts to expand their programs.

Packard suggested that this tendency was possibly an imitation of the tendency in European commercial schools toward three-year programs. Yet, he pointed out, in spite of these efforts the time usually spent in private schools did not exceed eight months and often amounted to

² *Proceedings Business Educators Association* 1889 pp. 68-88.

four months or less. Therefore, he suggested that the private school limit itself to specific skill training for business occupations and avoid academic subjects except those directly contributing to vocational adjustment. Many members of the conference vigorously and even bitterly condemned Packard for his comments.

The developments of the last 50 years have showed rather effectively that Packard was right, and that his denunciators were more ambitious than the situation justified. Generally, the private business school has been successful when it gave specific job training in the shortest possible period of time and did the job more efficiently than the public schools could do because of its concentration on a single purpose. When private business schools have attempted to participate in junior college work, they have generally been successful only when they became real junior colleges and divorced themselves from vocational training with the business school objectives.

Yet those who disagreed with Packard were also partly correct. Their ambition for expanded post high school business training has been fulfilled in the growth of the collegiate school of business. Though the Wharton School of Business of the University of Pennsylvania had been in existence several years before 1889, the business-college teachers evidently were not aware of it as a significant institution for business training.

RELATIONS BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Some people would like to believe that there is no conflict between public and private school interests. Of course there is. If there were no public business education, private business schools would flourish far beyond their present level, to some extent, private business schools operate because of the relative inefficiency of the public schools. As public education has increased, the private schools have decreased in numbers, in enrollment, and in income.

Nevertheless, some outstanding leaders in the private business schools have not in all cases objected to the growth of public business education. This is partly due to the high mindedness of these leaders, and partly because they feel that public school growth will reduce the number of inefficient private schools and therefore leave the field to the competent.

Because of the nature of governmental operation, there will probably continue to be a place for private business schools in our present economic system. The relative inflexibility of the public school program makes it possible for the efficient and competent private business school operator to render a service which the public school usually cannot and probably should not try to give.

A schism is, however, developing among independent school administrators. The larger schools that are well-entrenched seem to be trying to get as close to the practices of the public schools and publicly recognized schools as they can without actually entering the public-school program. Quite a number of independent schools have converted themselves into nonprofit making schools with the approval of the state authorities. In some cases, the conversion has been complete. In other cases, the conversion is largely theoretical for the proprietor still treats the schools as his private property with the consent of his board of trustees and the leniency of the state education department. Some of these schools do not seem to be able to make up their minds whether they are private schools or public nonprofit schools. They seek the advantages of both and the difficulties of neither.

Ultimately, those schools that parallel the nonprofit making schools must become part of the public-school system. They set their standards in terms of hours of study just as do the nonprofit schools and minimize or ignore achievement except as it is attained under a program of hours of learning. Thus they become subject to all the problems of the nonprofit school and lose the flexibility of the true private business school that makes its profit by providing immediate and specific job training in the shortest possible amount of time. There will always be need for the real private business school and a good profit for the enterpriser who meets the immediate needs of those seeking training to get specific jobs.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Trace the origin of the private business school.
2. What is the present status of the private business school? What do you think is its future? Why?
3. What were some of the abuses of the private business school? Were these weaknesses limited to private business schools?

4 Why does the private business school offer more specific job training than most other types of schools?

5 Why cannot private business schools adopt the same curricular principles as public high schools?

6 What is the unique function of the private business school?

7 Do you think that the public school system will eventually absorb the private business school? To what extent and in what manner? If not, why not?

8 What relationship is there between the program of business education in the junior college and in the private business school?

9 Should the private business school be under state control? What would be the advantages and disadvantages of such a move?

10 To what extent has self-regulation been effective among independent private business schools? Cite examples

11 What are the principal associations for private business schools? Why is there more than one?

12 Should there be common associations for private and public business education, or should each group have its own organizations? Why or why not?

13 To what extent are the interests of private or independent business schools and business education in public schools identical?

14 What are some of the recent trends in private business school enrollment, school organization, administration, and supervision?

15 Why were the Business Education Research Associates organized? What are their purposes? How successful has this group been to date?

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CHAPTER XXVI

The Collegiate School of Business

THE Wharton School of Finance and Commerce of the University of Pennsylvania, organized in 1881, was the first formal collegiate school of business in the United States. Its original program consisted of academic courses with a considerable addition of economic subjects dealing with such general topics as money and banking, the business cycle, general taxation, principles of commerce, and the business aspects of law. The program in business training was merely an adjunct to the department of economics.

Around the opening of the twentieth century, several other collegiate schools of business (or commerce) appeared in widely separated areas—at the University of California, the University of Chicago, Dartmouth College, New York University, the University of Wisconsin, and the University of Michigan. Somewhat earlier, a number of universities had inaugurated specialized courses in commerce. At present, most large universities and many smaller institutions have schools, or at least departments, of business. There are now (1960) over 300,000 students enrolled as majors in business on the college level—almost 10 per cent of all college enrollments.

CURRICULA VARIATIONS

The programs offered by these collegiate schools of business varied considerably. The program at the Wharton School, a general college program with business subjects added, differed widely from that at

New York University At the latter institution, business classes were at first scheduled for evenings only Instruction was given almost entirely by businessmen The curriculum was built around accountancy and culminated in a bachelor of commercial science degree All subjects were definitely concerned with business activities The curriculum at first was the equivalent of a two-year, then of a three year, and finally of a four-year program of specialized business instruction

Some colleges gave three years of general education and one year of business, others divided the program about equally, and some limited general training to one year and offered three years of specialized training In the last twenty years, collegiate schools of business have tended to become similar The strictly professional schools, like New York University, have added liberal arts courses, and those with a liberal arts basis have strengthened their professional business offerings

PURPOSES OF COLLEGIATE INSTRUCTION IN BUSINESS

Among the purposes of collegiate instruction in business are

- 1 To develop a mature understanding of the general nature of business
- 2 To provide training in specialized phases of business activity
- 3 To provide training for leadership in business
- 4 To lay a cultural and ethical foundation for the development of the three foregoing purposes

These objectives may be summarized in one general aim the development of a corps of professional managers of business For this reason, collegiate schools often object to clerical training which they feel should be given by private vocational or public high schools Graduates of collegiate business schools usually must go through the channels of clerical service before they can become managerial workers Therefore, to the extent to which the collegiate school fails to train for an initial position, it fails in one phase of its duty

Until recently, schools of commerce were primarily concerned with accounting Now they specialize in banking, real estate, insurance, and other business professions It is necessary, therefore, to understand what is meant by business as a profession and to consider some of the characteristics that mark the distinction between business as an occupation and a business profession

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CHARACTERISTICS OF A PROFESSION

A profession is usually considered an occupation in which the work is primarily intellectual in character. Many aspects of business are, of course, intellectual. Yet, how much is primarily intellectual in an abstract sense and how much is merely shrewd judgment of human nature is difficult to determine.

It is usually suggested that a profession should be pursued largely as a service for others and not for personal gain. Business occupations, as well as other occupations, to a certain extent perform services for others. But, again, the dividing line is hard to find, as all values are relative. Although the physician, for example, practices partly for personal gain, the emphasis is upon the ideal of service. To a certain extent, business also emphasizes service rather than profit. Modern business, however, has a long way to go before the ideal of service becomes primary and the profit motive secondary. In fact, that our present free-enterprise system of business could exist without some form of profit motive is difficult to conceive, and highly undesirable in the belief of many.

It is also suggested that the financial return in professional life is not the accepted measure of success. To a certain extent, of course, some businessmen have made notable contributions to the community that were in no way connected with money. Usually, however, a businessman is regarded as successful only if he has made a fortune.

Three Factors Associated with Professional Work Professional work is also influenced by the following three factors:

- 1 *A Code of Ethics* Usually each profession observes a stated code of ethics. The physician, the minister, the lawyer, and the teacher have developed definite and, as a rule, recognized codes. The businessman has also attempted to set up codes.

- 2 *State License* Usually a profession is tangibly recognized as such when the state undertakes to license, or offer credentials to, the person who plans to practice that profession. In all the recognized professions the state now prescribes a more or less elaborate program of licensing. Will the time come when the state will set up formal requirements for those who wish to engage in business?

- 3 *School Training* Another tangible characteristic of professional work is the requirement of formal training. In many cases the state prescribes the amount of training the licensee must have. It is doubtful whether the state

should grant the right to engage in business only to those who have had formal training

Professionalizing Phases of Business While the professionalizing of business as a whole may eventually be a reality, there are some phases of it that are already distinct professions. For example, law, which comprises one of the major functions of business, has for centuries belonged in the category of professions.

Within the present generation, accountancy has attempted to establish itself as a profession. To be sure, many phases of accounting still lack the professional stamp, but indications are that the more intellectual aspects of the work will in time be fully professionalized.

Insurance, real estate, credit, and purchasing have recently displayed evidence of professionalization. Some states now require licenses for insurance and real estate practice. While the state license alone does not give these occupations a professional stamp, it indicates that they possess the possibilities of developing into recognized professions.

This trend offers encouragement for the eventual professionalization of business management, but to what extent business management or certain business operations can be regarded as professional endeavor is still a moot question.

The Professional Manager The licensing of the managerial profession might greatly benefit society, for reasons that are not hard to find. The percentage of business failures, in this country particularly, is unbelievably high. It is said that, of any 100 establishments organized at a given time, only five will be in operation after five years, the others will have entered bankruptcy or will have been forced to liquidate in order to avoid bankruptcy.¹

These failures are due to a number of causes—ignorance of the field, inability to control credit, and inadequate financial support. The incompetency of the average person who starts a business is quite obvious and to a certain extent, measurable. It may be possible for the state to prescribe programs of training to be complete and financial requirements to be met before persons are permitted either to go into business themselves or to accept responsibility for the management of a business that is already established. As soon as management is required to meet

¹ See also statistics on "Commercial Failures" in the current issue of the *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, Washington D. C. United States Government Printing Office

essential standards, it can be elevated to the status of a profession. While there are certain indications that such regulation may take place, it will probably not be in the immediate future.

Is professionalization of the manager, who in many ways is the keystone of business enterprise, desirable? Attempts to standardize the requirements for professional management may lead to the stagnation of business. Since we depend primarily on managers to find new ways of creating profit, it is highly desirable (under our present system at least) that they possess the freedom to experiment.

Experimentation obviously incurs a certain amount of risk. The attempt to limit the possibility of failure may cause a shrinkage of business opportunities, hence, complete professionalization of business is a doubtful benefit. Perhaps more harm than good would result from it. Only time—time plus a great deal of trial and error—can answer the question.

SUBJECT MATTER IN COLLEGIATE SCHOOLS OF BUSINESS

The collegiate school of business is a new institution, and, therefore, some of the course content is still not well integrated. Some of the teaching material consists of descriptions of business practices, personal and possibly irrelevant business experience of the instructor, superficial application of economic theory, generalizations about management that are not based upon research, and incompletely digested ideas about psychology that are often based upon outworn theories. As management concepts become more professionalized and as futile subject matter is gradually eliminated, this work will improve.

Among the subjects most frequently taught in collegiate schools of business are

Accounting	Labor
Banking and finance	Management (including organization personnel, production office management)
Business ethics	Public finance and taxation
Business law	Real estate
Business teacher training	Secretarial studies
Distribution (including advertising marketing selling and retailing)	Statistics and business cycles
Economics	Transportation and public utilities
Foreign trade	
Insurance	

Many specialized curricula are offered accounting, advertising, banking brokerage, business law, foreign trade, hotel management, insurance, journalism, management, real estate, retailing, secretarial training, taxation, teacher training, and traffic management. There are also general curricula, which are similar to the liberal-arts program for those who have not decided upon a subject in which to specialize. Often the courses and curricula are organized on the basis of careful analysis, but such factors as faculty availability, good will of the liberal arts college, and vested interests are at times permitted to be more influential in program making than the needs of students. This shortsightedness may be a serious hindrance to the growth of the collegiate school of business.

It is also amazing to note that no significant emphasis is given to small business enterprise in colleges of business. Smaller business is typical of the American system, and many young men with initiative engage in it. Yet the school of business gives almost all attention to large business management and neglects the small business into which many of its graduates eventually go, or probably should go.

EXAMPLES OF COLLEGIATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS CURRICULUM

Here is the curriculum in accounting at the University of Illinois for 1959-60

	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Semester</i>
GROUP I UNIVERSITY REQUIREMENTS		
Military	4	1, 2, 3, 4
Physical education	4	1, 2, 3, 4
Rhetoric and composition	3	1
Rhetoric and composition	3	2
Remedial writing		

GROUP II COLLEGE GENERAL EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS

One of the following group of
four

American economic history	}	1 or 2
European economic history		
Introductory economic geography		
Introduction to the social studies		

	<i>Hours</i>	<i>Semester</i>
Science of personal health	2	1 or 2
Principles of effective speaking	3	2, 3, or 4
Business letter writing	3	3 or 4
College algebra	3	1 or 2
Science of advanced mathematics	4	1 or 2
Literature (sophomore standing or above) or language	6 or 16	Literature 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, or 8 Language 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6
Social science—a minimum of six hours in history, philosophy, political science, psychology, sociology, and anthropology, a minimum of 3 hours in 200 or 300 courses in economics	9 to 12	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, or 8
Additional hours in science, advanced mathematics, literature, language, social science, art, architecture, music, geography, humanities, and home economics to bring the total hours in this group to a minimum of 38		2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, or 8

GROUP III COLLEGE GENERAL BUSINESS EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS

Principles of accounting	3	1
Accounting procedure	3	2
Elementary cost accounting or intermediate accounting	3	3
Basic principles of business law	3	5 or 6
Principles of economics	6	4, 5, 6, 7, or 8
Elements of statistics	3	3, 4
Money, credit, and banking	3	4
Business finance	3	3 or 6
Industrial organization and management	3	4, 5, 6, 7, or 8
Principles of marketing	3	4, 5, 6

GROUP IV FIELD OF CONCENTRATION

(Requirements are to be fulfilled during the last four semesters)
 Not more than 27 hours in the designated major field (accountancy,

business education, economics, finance, management, or marketing), in addition to those required in the college general business education requirements, are accepted in meeting the total of 126 hours required for graduation. For example, a student in the accountancy field may not count toward the required 126 hours more than 27 hours of accountancy in excess of the 9 hours required of all students in Group III. A student in the economics field may not count more than 27 hours of economics courses in excess of those taken in Group II and Group III.

For those who are preparing to follow governmental, industrial, commercial, or public accounting, or who wish to use the field of concentration in accountancy as a general training for a career in business, 8 additional courses in accountancy, an additional course in business law and in rhetoric, and 6 hours of advanced commerce courses outside the field of accountancy are required.

HOW SPECIALIZED SHOULD THE COLLEGIATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS BECOME?

The moot question in the curriculum of the collegiate school of business in the early 1960's was the degree to which these schools had overspecialized. There is little doubt that some of these schools were giving a minimum attention to the liberal arts and that in many the segmentation of business courses had become extended to the point where there was little meaningful learning involved. On the other hand, the blanket indictment of these schools as job training factories was also a biased attitude. There is general agreement that at least half the learnings provided in the education of a businessman should be composed of meaningful basic humanistic and scientific competencies. The business courses should not be mere how-to-do courses, but rather should be concerned with understanding of the processes of business in relation to a total understanding of the world. Not more than 8 points out of a total of 128 are to be devoted to highly specialized initial job courses.

Few would quarrel with these concepts. However, the formal requirement of 64 points of liberal arts courses does not by itself guarantee a liberal background. Such courses can be, and often are, quite segmented and trivial as highly specialized courses, and in contrast, significant understandings of the relationships of human knowledge can be and often are provided through so-called job minded trainings.

Coupled with the insistence upon a high proportion of liberal arts content in the program of the school of business is a demand that the work of the school should be limited to the intellectually elite. The less scholarly are to be relegated to junior college, community college, teachers colleges, private business schools, and institutions of similar ilk. This point of view may have some justifications, but a contrary position could and does command equal justification. It may be questioned whether such segregation is in the best interests of all those concerned. There is no final evidence that those who succeed best in school are those who are most likely to succeed in the actual operations of business. Such segregation must easily result in the unplanned to deliberate diversion of these school elite from business life into the more congenial academic environment of government bureau, large business specialization or teaching.

COLLEGIATE TRAINING IN SECRETARIAL SCIENCE

The school of business has been traditionally opposed to training in shorthand and typing because it was deemed that these subjects were not truly professional in character. It is true that the average college graduate would not make a life's work of secretarial service, nevertheless, it is an excellent entering wedge into business. During the depression years of the 1930's, therefore, several collegiate schools that wished to give added service to their students included training in secretarial work in their four year programs.

The school of business faces a dilemma in regard to these subjects. If it gives all of them in the freshman and sophomore years, these skills are likely to be weakened, if not lost by the time the students go out to practice. On the other hand, if they are hunched into the junior and senior years, they definitely conflict with the concept of the school of business where only advanced work is presented. Some schools solve the problem, in part, by offering the basic courses in the first two years and then giving courses in secretarial training, speed dictation, and in practical secretarial experience in the last two years, in this way the basic skill is maintained and the professionalized elements of the work are developed. Schools of business are further encouraged to give secretarial training as a service to prospective teachers of shorthand and typing because in some cases the schools of education are not permitted or do not wish, to give that training.

Regardless of the philosophy of the school of business the majority of its students would greatly benefit from a minimum skill in typing, and many would profit from training in shorthand if it did not take so long as it usually does to acquire a usable skill

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

Graduate schools of business administration have developed in some of the larger universities. As a rule, the bulk of their student body is composed of graduates from liberal arts colleges, therefore much of the work is similar to that of the undergraduate school of business, though possibly offered on a more intensive basis. In all these graduate schools, however, definite efforts are being made to create an environment for genuine advanced work. Research facilities are gradually being provided, and within recent years, studies of serious merit have been produced. Several of the schools have organized institutes for the study of specialized phases of business. Most of those who receive their doctorates in graduate school do so with the intention of teaching business. Unlike the situation in some European countries, few holders of doctoral degrees actually go into business.

As certain phases of business become more professionalized and business as a whole becomes more subject to the concept of service as a means of profit, there is little doubt that graduate schools will increase in importance.

FACULTIES OF SCHOOLS OF BUSINESS

In the early stages in the development of schools of business, staffs were drawn largely from the department of economics (in the case of those schools that emphasized intellectual understanding) and from business (in the case of those schools that emphasized technical training). However, as soon as the schools of business and the graduate schools of business turned out an adequate number of graduates, more of the faculty members were drawn from this group.

The accepted procedure, at present, to become a collegiate instructor in business is to obtain a basic degree, either in a school of business or in a liberal-arts college, with a major or minor in business. Then, after a year or two of business experience, secured before or after

the master's degree, the student applies for a scholarship in a graduate school of business, based on evidence of his ability in previous school work. After receiving his doctorate, the student can usually obtain an instructorship in a small college or an assistantship in a large university. From then on, his promotion in the various levels of professorship and into more adequate salary brackets depends as much on his professional contributions, such as writing books and articles and producing recognized research, as it does on other factors.

The businessman, while still given much recognition, now usually serves in an advisory rather than in an instructional capacity. In the evening divisions of metropolitan schools, businessmen still serve quite extensively. The businessman, however, is primarily concerned with his full time activity, and, therefore, after a short period, he loses interest in the teaching job. Moreover, he is often likely to emphasize his current problems at the expense of other elements in the work that may be equally important. Service in the school of business is recognized as a full time job, and, therefore, it is quite logical that fewer businessmen should serve on the faculty. All too frequently this has caused a gap between theory and practice on the college level, just as it has on the secondary school level. The collegiate school of business must find more adequate means of using the help of practitioners in business to maintain the realism of its work.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

The usual collegiate instructor is quite disdainful of methodology. Rather than really teach, he often limits himself to the lecture method whereby he exposes his students to learning opportunities. All too frequently the class lecture is little more than a repetition of the work in the required text with a minimum of added discussion. Once or twice during the term a formal written test is given to determine whether the students can give back to the instructor what he gave them. The usual present day university class has not advanced much from the practice of the medieval university in which the professor lectured because there were no textbooks, and the students took notes because that was the only way they could get the material. The school of commerce is by no means exempt from this indictment of college teaching in general. Anything that the instructor now can say has probably been written in

better form But the practice continues of presenting material as if the students could not read and books were not available

Some more constructive instructors use the text as a point of departure and devote their classwork to discussion and interpretation A few make a serious effort to get active student participation in the conduct of the class In spite of the many weaknesses of the high school, its instruction in business is far advanced, compared with the presentation in the formal school of business High school teachers have been exposed to the study of teaching methods, and more important, their younger students would not tolerate the academic dullness of the usual college presentation

One device for obtaining participation, albeit passive activity, is the class theme or term paper The instructor may set the problem, and because of the limited variety of topics, if the material is to be specific, extra copies soon become available This results in the submission of papers, with slight variations, that have already been presented No instructor can remember all the material he has read Papers are, in any case, all too often mere paraphrases of material found in the text

Term papers are too frequently assigned because it is necessary to make students work There is the hope that, somehow, quantity of effort will produce learning The falsity of this dogma does not need to be analyzed Student activity is basic to learning More, rather than less, of the classwork should come from the students

CASE METHOD OF INSTRUCTION

It is the judgment of the Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration that

Instruction in all the educational programs of the Business School is by the case method Lectures are kept to a minimum, and if assignments of collateral reading are given, they are primarily for purposes of technical background In the business world, where every decision must be appropriate to the specific situation and no two situations are identical, it is the ability to analyze, to judge trends, to weigh diverse influences, that leads to sound judgment, and that ability can be developed only through practice

Therefore, from the outset the students at the Business School discuss cases, i.e., real business situations in which executives take action and are responsible for the results Each student is repeatedly placed in a position

where, as an administrator, he must not only evaluate evidence but act with responsibility. He is compelled to meet, one after another, new situations in which he must grapple intellectually with fresh combinations of facts and half-facts, opinions, and ideas, there are no answers for him in any book.

Faced with a labor problem, for instance, the student must decide what he himself would do in the position of a particular individual, in an actual company, in a specific situation. The printed case which he has before him will probably include a statement of bargaining demands and counterproposals, details of the negotiations to date, and an account of some of the personalities involved. Implicit in the material will be such considerations as the strength of the union, the needs of the workers, the earning power and competitive position of the company, the rights of the stockholders, and the long run interests of the total organization.

The students study the case individually. They meet in small groups for further exploration, sharing their varied backgrounds of experience and sharpening their ideas in argument. Individually, again, they arrive at a decision which they must be prepared to defend. Then, in class, under the questioning and guidance of an instructor, they weigh the factors, probe the underlying issues, compare the advantages and disadvantages of different moves, and work out a course of action in the light of the company's objectives.

Inevitably, with such a case as the one described, the student learns something of union organization and bargaining procedure, by assignment or on his own, he may do some reading or research to broaden his understanding of labor economics or some other related matter. And at the same time he develops a concept of ethical values and of social responsibility in the making of concrete business decisions.

In total, during his two years at the Business School, the candidate for the M B A degree is confronted with close to a thousand specific situations. From this experience he acquires a background of facts and currently useful generalizations which afford guidance in changing sets of circumstances but which do not automatically furnish the solution to new problems, for new problems are seldom "typical." Learning how to differentiate one situation from another and how to recognize the more important issues in cases is one of the major contributions to the development of administrative capacity.

Handing in "not less than twenty-five pages" of double-spaced, typed material on some topic that is merely paraphrased does not, however, constitute meaningful learning activity. Schools of education are, unfortunately, just as open to this indictment as schools of business.

Problem discussion, the group conference, the term paper (well-planned and requiring constructive effort), the examination, visual aids, the book review, and even the lecture, all may make a contribution to good college teaching if they are well used and if their limitations are recognized. Reliance upon one or two teaching devices pitifully handicaps instruction.

Fortunately there is a growing realization of this problem in collegiate schools of business. In some schools, seminars are being conducted among the faculty to discuss this problem, articles on teaching are being written for the professional magazines of business, and increasing numbers of instructors are giving some attention to the problems of college teaching in working for their doctorate. In most schools, promotion is given not so much for good teaching as for evidence of scholarly production. Hence, most schools of business ignore the existence of schools of education on their campus, which, while being far from perfect, have given most constructive attention to this problem. Their findings, if properly used, could make a significant contribution to the improvement of teaching in the school of business.

It is surprising that schools of business have not established laboratories for their students, following the example of the schools of agriculture. Such enterprise to the extent to which it is successful, would give evidence of the ability of the school to practice its preachings and would provide data for study and practice.

MANAGEMENT IN OCCUPATIONAL LIFE

The increase in managerial workers indicates that there are great opportunities in this field. In considering managerial workers, it is futile to cling to the classification of business and nonbusiness occupations, because managerial workers undertake numerous activities. Furthermore, the entrepreneurs cannot be differentiated from those persons employed in a managerial capacity. While individual entrepreneurs have decreased in number, this decrease has been offset by the increase in salaried managers. Over 10 million persons, or one-sixth of all gainful workers, including independent owners and tenant farmers, are engaged in occupations that are largely managerial in character.

The depression following 1929 made people increasingly aware of the need for better management of national and individual life. That some phases of managerial training should be included in organized

education cannot be doubted, but the place for such training has not been decided upon. When, where, and how this training should be given will be determined by trial and error.

THE PROBLEM OF ARTICULATION

One of the numerous problems of the collegiate school is that of differentiating its curriculum from the liberal arts curriculum. If existing trends continue, the collegiate school of business will develop into a kind of liberal arts school, just as the colleges of Colonial America which were really divinity schools, became liberal arts institutions, necessitating the establishment of distinct schools for divinity students.

The collegiate school of business still offers many courses that really belong in the secondary school, particularly in the field of economics. The appearance of a more general type of economics in high schools, however, has permitted the collegiate school to concentrate on its theoretical presentation.

The same difficulty arises with business law. Students who have taken this course in secondary schools are compelled to repeat it. The assumption that all students must begin their specialized training in college is naive.

Specialized subjects, such as finance, banking, insurance, and transportation, belong, as a rule, in the collegiate school of business. Only the large high school may occasionally find a place for them. The collegiate school of business should help to develop a better program of social business training in the high school, for it will then be able to transfer the elementary phases of this training to the secondary school, where it really belongs. This aid is needed if the secondary school program is to be successful, opposition, even if tacit, may lead to failure.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

The college should accept high school graduates with sound credentials. Careful and impersonal examinations should be administered to all students. Those who have adequate knowledge of basic business subjects should be permitted to take the advanced courses. Those who

cannot qualify should take preliminary courses. These preliminary courses will help to articulate students who lack a knowledge of social-business subjects.

Collegiate schools of business sometimes discriminate against students who have specialized in business in the secondary school. But when a better understanding of the aim of the high school is reached, these schools will accept students on the basis of fitness for collegiate instruction, limiting formal requirements to high school graduation.

THE FUTURE OF COLLEGIATE TRAINING FOR BUSINESS

Next to teaching, business is the most frequent specialization among college students. Yet the number of graduates with business majors is probably less than the number of workers business can absorb.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 What are the principal objectives of collegiate schools of business?
- 2 To what extent have economic conditions in the United States and in Europe encouraged the rapid growth of the collegiate school of business?
- 3 Is the future trend of student enrollment in the collegiate school of business likely to be the same as that of the past? Will more women enroll? More adults? More persons seeking special courses rather than complete programs of training?
- 4 List the characteristics of a profession. To what extent can business be professionalized?
- 5 Give several typical curricula of collegiate schools of business not presented in this chapter. What justification is there for them? Should other curricula be offered?
- 6 What occupational opportunities are open to college graduates in business?
- 7 Do other educational institutions parallel and supplement the work of the collegiate school of business? Which ones? Why?
- 8 Should the training and personal qualities of a collegiate business instructor be similar to those of high school teachers? Why?
- 9 What are the entrance requirements of various collegiate schools of business? Are they justified?
- 10 List the major problems of duplication between the secondary school and the collegiate school of business. Suggest at least one partial solution for each.

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CHAPTER XXVII

Junior-College Business Education

THE JUNIOR college is a new and rapidly growing institution. Its enrollment of under 50,000 in 1925 increased almost twentyfold by 1960. During the war, there was a temporary loss of students, but this loss was more than regained in the postwar period. In 1960, there were 680 junior colleges with a total enrollment of over 900,000 of whom over 350,000 were adult nondegree students. These junior colleges had 18,000 full-time and over 12,000 part-time persons on their faculties. California leads all other states with 733 per cent of all full time students in public higher education below the prior year in junior colleges. While there are almost as many privately controlled junior colleges as there are publicly controlled schools, the enrollment in public schools is more than six times that of the privately controlled schools. While most junior colleges are small schools, California alone has over ten junior colleges with more than 10 000 students. The first publicly supported community junior college in New York State was established in 1950. There were, in 1960, 16 junior colleges under the State University in addition to 25 privately supported institutions.

The junior college idea is not new. Edmund J. James, a leader in business education and former president of the University of Illinois, suggested the junior college concept in 1885. A large part of the work of the first two years of the traditional college is in the nature of secondary school. It should be much closer in methods of learning and content to the work of the high school than it is to that of the profes

sional school The University of Chicago, under William R. Harper, led since 1890 in the attempt to associate the first two years of college work with the work of the secondary schools and to integrate the work of the last two years of the college with the work of the professional schools, as is the custom in Europe.

It is felt that economic conditions now justify holding all youth in some form of school training until at least their twentieth birthday. This would mean a vast expansion of training facilities in the period equivalent to that served by the first two years of the traditional college. Advocates of the junior college feel that its facilities are the most effective for meeting this need. As was implied above, the junior college has been most successful where collegiate training facilities have not been adequate or their support has not been sufficient. In the South, for example, the decline of specialized sectarianism in collegiate training has resulted in the shifting of support from the numerous small schools to the larger and often better-equipped schools. The small institutions have found that they can better utilize their rather meager resources by uniting themselves in junior-college instruction. Local pride is an additional factor. If a community cannot afford a full college, it can at least achieve its hope for something like a collegiate atmosphere through the establishment of a junior college.

TYPES OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

There are various forms of public junior colleges, such as those supported by city public school systems and those supported by junior college school districts. These junior colleges usually, as in California, receive state aid, but are also dependent on local taxation. In New York State, community colleges are supported one third by the state, one third by the community, and one third by student fees. Capital expenditures are divided between the state and community. Then there are state junior colleges directly under the state department of education or a special board supported by the state government. Finally, there are those that are branches of the state university, either off the main campus or directly on it. The latter usually are not classified among junior colleges because it is considered that they offer only the first two years of the full four year program, even though they may operate just like independent schools. Some private business schools resemble

junior colleges, and a few have actually assumed the designation. The public junior colleges predominate in the West and in parts of the South. Eastern junior colleges are often privately controlled or profit making ventures.

FUNCTIONS OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

The basic function of the junior college is to make post high school instruction available for students to whom it would otherwise not be offered, either because of geographical placement or because of cost. Supplementary to this purpose is that of extending secondary training to those who can profit by it. The college is not able or willing to give many subjects that the high school is finding it wise to shift beyond the twelfth year. Most high schools, for example, have decided that they are not fitted to give training for junior accountancy, and that their students are too immature to profit from it. The college of business is very much concerned with preparation for accountancy as a senior profession, rather than as a junior occupation, and with training in the various ramifications of accounting. Nevertheless, there are many opportunities for the junior accountant, and thousands of young men are interested in entering the work at this level. This is an opportunity for a unique service by the junior collegiate type of school.

Furthermore, a group of business occupations is developing for which training should be given on a post high school level, but which the senior college is unwilling or unable to provide. In presenting training for these semiprofessional services, the junior college has a major service to render. Junior colleges serve as job preparation institutions, so that economically there is sound justification for this type of school. The community will gradually become accustomed to the idea of students attending school to their nineteenth or twentieth year, instead of their seventeenth or eighteenth year, as is typical at present. This means that some form of junior collegiate education will become as characteristic of the educational system of the United States as the high school now is.

There are many different concepts of the term "junior college." Some people think of it as a one year institution, some, as a two-year institution, others believe that it should cover four years, embracing what are now the last two years of high school and the first two of

college Some private high schools are called junior colleges The junior college is often regarded as a finishing school, either academic or vocational, or as a preparatory institution for senior college In this chapter the junior college will be regarded as an institution, either public or private, offering instruction equivalent to the first two years of college

THE PROBLEM OF INTEGRATING THE JUNIOR COLLEGE INTO THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The American college developed as an institution for training the clergy during the American Colonial Period Later, those who were planning to enter medicine and law also enrolled in the college, often at the age of fifteen or sixteen After this country became a nation, those interested in building up a good school system used as a model the Prussian elementary school, an eight year terminal institution When the idea of the four year high school gradually grew, it was superimposed upon an eight year elementary school It also was designed as a terminal school rather than as preparatory to college

As the economic means of the American people increased, more and more of the young people continued their training in college Consequently entrance into college was shifted upward at least two years, although the high school continued as a four year school with the majority of its students terminating their training at graduation The college did not, however, eliminate those aspects of its work that were secondary in character, therefore, a marked duplication of effort resulted It is to be hoped that this duplication, resulting in superficiality in teaching will be eliminated in the reorganization of education that is likely in the near future

This situation has caused considerable doubt about the exact status of the junior college Is it a secondary school or a college? Colleges think of it as collegiate, for the American Association of University Professors has opened its membership to the faculties of junior colleges On the other hand, the National Association of Secondary School Principals welcomes the administrators of junior colleges into its organization

A concept of a completely reorganized school system has been in existence for some time It consists of a six year elementary school,

a four-year high school, based upon the last two years of the traditional elementary school and the first two years of the traditional high school, a four-year college, based upon the last two years of the traditional high school and the first two years of the traditional college, and a three- or four-year university, offering the last two years of college and graduate training. The current tendency also has been to start schooling at the fourth year instead of the sixth. If that idea were developed, the two-year nursery school and the first two years of the traditional elementary school could be combined into a four-year activity school. This would leave the elementary school with four years for basic instruction in the fundamentals—ample time if it is utilized efficiently, as can be seen from the example of several European school systems.

Whether this will actually take place is quite uncertain. The traditional elementary school and high school have strongly vested interests not only among educators but also among parents. Moreover, the advantages are not all in favor of the new concept. As was pointed out before, other types of institutions are competing with the junior college to serve the post high school precollegiate area of training. In New York State, a plan has been developed for a series of public community colleges specifically planned to meet the needs of this field. There is, therefore, no basis for certainty about the type of school system that will be developed. It must be realized that the ultimate form and amount of military training required from young men will also seriously influence the nature of the school structure.

GROWTH OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGES

There are several reasons for the growth of the junior college.

1. Increased enrollments in secondary schools have made available a larger supply of potential entrants for collegiate instruction.

2. Many of the universities have set up higher entrance requirements. This is particularly true of the freshman year in which the university administrations try to cut down on the excessively large enrollment, with heavy mortality as a result.

3. During the 1930s the difficulties of finding employment and the resultant higher employment standards encouraged many young people to go to junior colleges.

4 If a junior college was located in the home town it was often much less expensive to attend it than to go to an out-of town university

5 Many students graduated from high school at relatively early ages, and their parents were unwilling to have them away from home

6 The attitude of many educators toward the first two years of collegiate instruction encouraged the formation of junior colleges, inasmuch as this level of training was increasingly considered secondary rather than collegiate in nature

In some communities, the adjustment of youth from school life to occupational life has been delegated to the high school, either by having students attend a postgraduate program or by permitting them to enter regular high school classes where their individual weaknesses could be corrected. This procedure has the disadvantages of overcrowding the high school classes and of making high school graduates feel that they have not attained a definite goal.

Legislation has been proposed for the establishment of vocational schools on a post high school level. Some kind of development of this type will undoubtedly take place. Whether these schools will be of the nature of junior colleges or whether they will be in competition with junior colleges is not certain. Most junior-college organizations have a doubtful attitude toward them. In New York State, provision has been made for the establishment of a thirteenth year to be superimposed on the high school for specialized job training. In that state, this post high school thirteenth year is definitely not considered a junior-college program. A considerable number of schools all over the state, and especially in New York City, have developed successful programs.

BUSINESS EDUCATION IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

Business education has not as yet found a fixed place in all junior colleges, for many junior collegiate institutions are continuing to give a purely academic education. The junior college can successfully offer a preprofessional business curriculum, since it is commonly agreed that the first two years of college should stress general education, permitting the student to specialize in the last two years. Junior colleges still emphasize transfer to senior colleges, as shown by the curricula listed in their catalogues.

Terminal Training in the Junior College The terminal program is

gradually entering the junior college. In fact, over a third of the terminal programs (for those not preparing for entrance into senior colleges) are vocational in nature. There is every reason for all but a portion of the terminal curricula to have vocational objectives, but that will require considerable adaptation in the thinking of parents, students, and instructional staff. A considerable number of business occupational subjects are taught, shorthand, for example, although the extent to which it should be given in the junior college has not been determined. Measurable amounts of salesmanship, bookkeeping, and junior accountancy are also offered in the junior college.

In the Los Angeles junior colleges, for example, there are programs in accounting, banking, bookkeeping, finance, general clerical, general secretarial, and legal secretarial training. General business curricula tend to predominate in junior college business training, with secretarial training a close second. The number of specialized programs in accounting, merchandising, management, legal secretarial, and medical secretarial is far less frequent.

Some Typical Junior College Curricula The secretarial curriculum of the Corning (N Y) Community College consists of the following courses:

FIRST YEAR

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Fall Semester</i>	<i>Spring Hours</i>
English, freshman	3	3
Principles of economics	3	3
College accounting ¹	3	3
Fundamentals of business	2	2
Typewriting ¹	2	2
Shorthand ¹	3	3
Physical education	1	1
	<u>17</u>	<u>17</u>

SECOND YEAR

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Fall Semester</i>	<i>Spring Hours</i>
Business mathematics ¹	3	
Business elective		3
Office management	3	
Secretarial workshop	7	10
Science or elective	3	3
Speech	2	2
Physical education	1	1
	<u>19</u>	<u>19</u>

¹ Exemption provided on the basis of evidence of competency achieved through adequate high school training.

The merchandising curriculum at Fullerton (California) Junior College includes

PRINCIPLES OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

	<i>Units</i>		<i>Units</i>
Retail selling	3	Personnel relations	3
Advertising and display	3	Business mathematics	3
Small business management	3	Business organization	3
Accounting practice	4	Personal finance	3
Typing	3	Co-operative retail training	16
	<i>Units</i>		<i>Units</i>
Business English	3	History and government	3
Business correspondence	3	Health science	2
Elements of speech	3	Physical education	2
Psychology	2	Electives	3
Spelling	2		

Here is the secretarial curriculum of Joplin (Missouri) Junior College

	<i>Semester Hours</i>		<i>Semester Hours</i>
English	3	Business arithmetic	3
Business communications	3	Introduction to business	3
Shorthand*	6 to 9	Business law	3
Typing	9	Government or history	5
Accounting*	9 to 12	Electives	4 to 8
Office machines	5 to 9	Physical	
Secretarial procedures	3	education (for 2 years)	

* A student may choose shorthand or accounting or both

The stenographic curriculum of The Metropolitan Junior College of Los Angeles, California, consists of the following subjects

FIRST YEAR

<i>Alpha Semester</i>	<i>Units</i>	<i>Beta Semester</i>	<i>Units</i>
Communications (English 1 or 21)	3	Communications (English 45)	3
Psychology 9	1	Political science 10	2
Secretarial science 1	2	Secretarial science 2	2
Secretarial science 7	1½	Secretarial science 11	5
Secretarial science 10	5	General education electives	3
General education electives	2	Physical education activity	¾
Physical education activity	¾		
	<u>15</u>		<u>15</u>

SECOND YEAR

<i>Gamma Semester</i>	<i>Units</i>	<i>Delta semester</i>	<i>Units</i>
History 11	3	Accounting 1 1 or 23	1
Office machines 22, 23	1	Mathematics 30 1	1½
Secretarial science 3	2	Health education 10	2
Secretarial science 12	5	Secretarial science 8	1
Secretarial science 33	1	Secretarial science 13	5
General education electives	2	Secretarial science 30	1
Physical education activity	½	General education electives	3
	14½	Physical education activity	¾
			15

All courses printed in bold face type are required for the Associate in Arts degree with a major in Secretarial Science courses in light face are considered as recommended allied courses in this area.

In addition Metropolitan Junior College offers programs in accounting, business administration, business arts, general business, machine bookkeeping, machine calculation, merchandising, legal secretarial, medical secretarial, and stenography Transfer curriculum are offered in business administration, and business education (preteaching major)

Certificate programs are also provided at Metropolitan Junior College in several areas As a basis for comparison with the two-year program here is the one-year program leading to a business certificate

<i>First Semester</i>	<i>Units</i>	<i>Second Semester</i>	<i>Units</i>
Communications (English 1 or 2)	3	Communications (English 45)	3
Psychology 9	1	Office machines 22 or 23	½
Secretarial science 1 and 2	4	Secretarial science 3	2
Secretarial science 7	1½	Secretarial science 11	5
Secretarial science 10	5	Secretarial science 33	1
Physical education activity	½	General education elective	3
	15	Physical education activity	½
			15
		Business Certificate in Stenography	30

The San Francisco Junior College provides an insurance curriculum in which the specialized subjects are insurance policies, principles of insurance, life insurance, casualty insurance, fire insurance, and consumer insurance Other subjects are, of course, provided The curricu-

lum was organized by, and co-operative training is provided in, the insurance firms of the metropolitan area

There are several other specializations offered in junior colleges in terms of the local needs and opportunities for employment for graduates Rochester (Minnesota) Junior College is one of several schools offering a program of hotel and restaurant management, and Colby (New Hampshire) Junior College, for example, has pioneered in the organization of a program for medical secretaries

JOB TRAINING IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

The junior college can render an excellent service in the field of general clerical work. Since the ordinary secondary school cannot afford to install the numerous machines now used in offices, the junior college can probably take over this type of education, particularly in metropolitan areas

A vocational skill subject is best learned just before it is to be used. The interest is keener at that point, the methods and subject matter are more up-to-date, and there is no loss of skill due to disuse. The upgrading of skill subjects, however, will be a gradual process, because many high school graduates still find employment, and teachers and counselors have not yet convinced parents that a high school education is often insufficient preparation for a stenographic or bookkeeping position with promotional opportunities. In time, however, parents will realize that better positions are obtained by those with more training, and, as post high school public education is extended, they will acknowledge the advantage of deferring technical training until boys and girls have had a broader general education

Since terminal curricula are not bound by tradition or college entrance requirements, the courses should be functional. To this end, the employment possibilities of the community should be surveyed, and the abilities of present and prospective students should be studied. Then the work should be planned to fit both the students and the vocational needs of the community. The fact that the junior college is free to adjust itself to community needs enables it to render a distinctive service. Work experience should be an essential phase of junior-college business training

Many junior colleges have endeavored to make their work meet com-

munity needs For example, although the Joseph A Maybin School in New Orleans is a one year postgraduate high school and not a junior college, the commercial curricula were developed after a survey of employment possibilities in New Orleans Pasadena Junior College has three commercial curricula stenographic, bookkeeping, and general business Westbrook Junior College, of Portland, Maine, found that there were opportunities for medical secretaries in its vicinity and proceeded to train girls in this field The commercial curriculum in the junior college at Rochester, Minnesota, is designed expressly for secretaries and clerical workers in the clinic there

DUPLICATION SHOULD BE AVOIDED

The persons responsible for the organization and administration of junior college curricula must be careful to avoid unnecessary duplication of high school work The level of attainment should be above that of the high school, and not all the junior college work should be confined to skill subjects That one year of purely technical training is sufficient is shown by the results attained by such institutions as the Joseph Maybin School in New Orleans

Unfortunately far too many schools encourage or even force students to take over identical courses when transferring from one level to another Students should be exempt from programs that duplicate either by outright exemption or by reasonable examinations The excuse that the lower level school did a poor job is usually only a subterfuge

BUSINESS COURSES OFFERED BY JUNIOR COLLEGES

The business courses in junior colleges are not markedly different from those in the senior high school or the collegiate school of business The most commonly taught subjects are typewriting shorthand bookkeeping and accounting, secretarial training business law, business mathematics office machines, salesmanship business communication (English), introduction to business marketing and management and organization

Here, for example is a list of the courses offered in the Chicago City Junior College at its various branches

Fundamentals of accounting	Marketing
Principles of accounting	Introduction to finance
Introduction to business	Personnel management
Beginning typing	Auditing
Advanced typing	Salesmanship
Production typing	Filing
Gregg shorthand	Office machines
Pitman shorthand	Office procedures
Dictation and transcription	Business recordkeeping
Cost accounting	Payroll accounting
Federal income tax	Business mathematics
Business law	General insurance

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

Some private business schools have developed into junior colleges of business. In some cities the high school of commerce is moving in this direction. Continuation schools, which have been changed into full time vocational schools, also show this tendency. Some of these continuation schools do not accept ninth- or even tenth-grade students. Many of them, however, take high school graduates and give them vocational training. Some private business schools already call themselves junior colleges, but their curricula often are vague and unsettled.

The trend is toward a consolidation of the various institutions into a more completely integrated program on the junior-college level. This will relieve the secondary school of some of its job-training responsibility and permit it to concentrate on general business instruction, which is so urgently needed in high schools.

THE FUTURE OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

While the nature of the junior college in the period ahead is by no means certain, its future in some form is unquestioned. The growth of an institution of learning at the postsecondary level of less than four years in program seems certain. As was pointed out in the previous paragraph, several types of business educational institutions are leaning toward junior college structure. This same tendency is true in all phases of education. During the next twenty five years, the Associate of Arts

degree will completely replace the high school diploma as a device for educational measurement in job qualification"¹ This is a strong statement to make, especially since it may be questioned just how seriously we now take the high school as a device for measuring job qualification in business Nevertheless, it does show what professional advocates think

In order to make universal schooling of some type desired by all up to and through the twentieth year of age, there will have to be the widest possible opportunity for difference in content and methodology Whether the junior college can meet this challenge has not been definitely proved to date There are strong proposals for the more complete differentiation of work even at the high school level, inasmuch as many people feel that the high school is too academic to serve as a universal institution

The need for highly differentiated schools is not too acute in business training as it lends itself rather effectively to school training This is true not only of secretarial training and junior accountancy but also of junior managerial training, office machine training, and many aspects of distributive education

Nevertheless, this differentiating tendency is strong in business education also Some junior colleges of business, like the Metropolitan Junior College of Los Angeles, are free public schools, others, particularly in the East, still are more like the private business schools which they originally were than the nonprofit schools, fully or partially accredited for credit transfer purposes that they purport to be As was indicated in Chapter XXV, "The Private Business School," many more independent business schools will seek junior-college status in the future There will be even more of a tendency for them to retain their private business-school status than those that have already made the change

Just what the final place of the junior college will be in the American educational system will not be determined for some time Therefore, experimentation among the various alternate forms of educational institutions in the area immediately beyond the senior high school is highly desirable Possibly several different forms will become stabilized at this level to meet the needs of different types of students Undoubtedly, this area of educational service will be the field in which the most

¹ National Society for the Study of Education 55th Yearbook, Part I *The Public Junior College* Chicago The University of Chicago Press, 1956

significant adjustments will be made during the next few years, for the temporary decrease in enrollments that have developed in the high school will relieve the tension there and make it possible to devote more funds and care to the post high-school program. Other possible school forms serving at this level are treated in the next chapter.

This much seems certain, however, whether the school is called a junior college, a community college, or even has several different titles, its growth is assured and its status as a major segment of the educational ladder is certain. That most of the semiprofessional and skill-like training in business education will sift to this level seems also at present to be quite obvious.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 List the specific objectives of the junior college. Which of these objectives affects the business curriculum of the junior college?
- 2 What types of students should the business curriculum of the junior college serve? Why?
- 3 Outline the community situation that makes the establishment of a junior college desirable. How may the junior college be financed?
- 4 What is the relation of a junior college to a public high school? To a senior college or university? To a private business school?
- 5 What are some typical junior-college business curricula? Evaluate at least one in terms of the criteria given in Chapter XXXVI.
- 6 Should junior-college curricula resemble those of collegiate schools of business in the first two years? What are some trends in junior-college business curriculum making?
- 7 What opposition is there to the junior college? Why? What is your opinion?
- 8 To what extent has the junior college been integrated into the American educational system?
- 9 Secure the curricula in business education of several junior colleges. Compare them with those given in this chapter.
- 10 Why do some people believe that the junior college will eventually be the center of learning for adults?

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CHAPTER XXVIII

Special Institutions Offering Training for Business

THIS chapter deals with special institutions concerned with training for business. Among them are (1) the continuation school, (2) the full time vocational school, (3) the evening school, (4) the high school of commerce, (5) adult education.

THE CONTINUATION SCHOOL

The continuation school is an institution in which part time instruction is given to junior workers who have reached the minimum age for leaving full time school, but for whom the community, nevertheless, feels the responsibility for providing some further training. The minimum age for leaving school now generally varies from the fourteenth to the sixteenth year, and the age at which junior workers may discontinue their continuation school training varies from the sixteenth to the eighteenth year. Continuation school students usually attend school during regular employment time from four to eight hours a week.

The continuation school originated in Germany, where public secondary education based on elementary-school work was not provided in the early nineteenth century. In many cases, the chief functions of the continuation school had a civic, moral, and religious significance. As the factory system developed, the continuation school tended to confine itself to the development of skills that could not be acquired easily on the job.

Shortly before World War I, Dr Georg Kerschensteiner came to the United States to study the American educational system and to promote the idea of the continuation school. His influence was extremely important.

Why the Continuation School Emerged Forces that aided the emergence of the continuation school existed even before World War I. Labor unions wished to retard the entrance of young people into occupational life to avoid the competition between cheap child labor and more expensive adult union labor. Furthermore, the unions believed that a prolonged period of education benefited prospective workers and, therefore, advocated part time continuation schools. Growing industrialization also made many broad minded persons aware of the need of a longer school program and greater educational opportunities for the American public. About the time of World War I, various state legislatures enacted compulsory school laws providing that children from twelve to fourteen years of age who obtained working papers must attend continuation school from four to eight hours a week until they reached their seventeenth or eighteenth birthday.

Various attempts were made to permit this training to be given in the evening, after working hours, rather than during the day. However, these attempts to break down the functioning of the continuation school were not successful, with the exception of temporary periods in a few states.

Type of Instruction Formal group instruction, such as that given in the secondary school, was not suited to these students, many of whom were often less competent intellectually. Hence, new teaching procedures were needed. At first, a scarcity of competent teachers and problems of organizing teaching materials retarded the growth of the continuation school. By 1929, however, these obstacles to progress had generally been removed and satisfactory techniques had been established. Emphasis was given to skills that could be taught within the time available and that students might use on the job. Remedial work in the fundamental processes and core training were stressed. Business subjects were among the most popular in the curriculum.

Effect of the Depression of the 1930's A drastic change followed the depression of 1929. Young workers were the first to lose their jobs. Senior workers accepted salaries as low as those of junior employees, hence, it became increasingly difficult for the latter to obtain employ-

ment Enrollment in the continuation schools dropped rapidly, while full-time schools acquired many continuation-school students The compulsory school age began to rise, while the Wage and Hours Law of 1938 further reduced the possibilities of employment for young people

The continuation school had hardly become established when economic conditions necessitated a sharp curtailment After 1929, many of these schools began to offer full time programs, or they became specialized trade schools catering to the rehabilitation needs of unemployed adults Also, thousands of academically trained students were offered education for specific occupations The continuation school as a separate institution has now been generally eliminated The small amount of continuation work that is still necessary usually is given in full-time vocational schools

THE FULL-TIME VOCATIONAL SCHOOL OR TECHNICAL INSTITUTE

The inability of the average high school to meet the vocational needs of the average student, and the abandonment of the continuation schools, have resulted in the creation of specialized vocational schools Administrators of these institutions insist that their courses are not fitted primarily for dull students In fact, they claim that in some vocational schools the standards are so high that many dull boys and girls must attend academic high schools

New York City, for example, has full time vocational schools, offering occupational training for jobs in aviation, homemaking, women's garment trades, building, metal, automotive, and specialty trades Throughout the country, there are also many general vocational high schools, some of which offer specialized training for particular occupations Not the entire program of this type of school is on an in service level Highly specialized preservice training, however, may often have more job value than most in service training

The vocational school is especially adapted to students who find that ordinary high school work does not appeal to them, and to graduates of academic high schools who need specific training in order to obtain employment

Adults who require retraining can take either day or night courses in the vocational school A limited number of continuation students

are provided for Considerable hope for better vocational training has been aroused by the creation of vocational high schools

The Boston School of Business Education (formerly Boston Clerical School) is one of the few co-educational public schools offering business education for high school graduates There is no tuition for residents of Boston

The school offers four programs

Bookkeeping, which in addition to bookkeeping includes business English, typewriting, filing, business law, penmanship, spelling, business arithmetic and related business machines

Shorthand, which in addition to shorthand includes business English, typewriting, filing, business law, penmanship, spelling, business arithmetic, and related business machines

Accounting which also includes business English, typewriting, economics, business law, business organization, filing, penmanship, spelling, psychology, and related office machines

Secretarial, which includes business English, English composition, typewriting, secretarial accounting, business law, business organization, secretarial routine, filing, office training, psychology, penmanship, spelling, business arithmetic, and related office machines

The program is planned for graduates of four-year high schools and those of higher education having executive ability and personality who desire to become not only competent stenographers, but also to be trained for the exacting and important functions of a secretary, where greater responsibilities give wider opportunity for capability and for exercise of initiative

The work in each unit lasts about eight weeks Students may enter during September or thereafter Classes of beginners in shorthand and other subjects are organized frequently The individual nature of the work allows those who enter with advanced standing to be fitted into current classes at any time

There is also a program for adults who wish business training

A third program is primarily in service training Business firms may send employees to the school for special business training or for upgrading of business skills The employer designates the kind and the degree of skill desired in his office, and the school, working individually with the student, fits the instruction to his need This arrangement makes possible a greater use of the employee's ability, and it eliminates the

necessity for firms to sacrifice time and money in maintaining training programs within the business itself

The Boston Clerical School operates similarly to private business schools in three ways—individual promotion from unit to unit upon completion of each section of the work, individual graduation on any day of the school year on which a student completes work, and full-time placement of graduates as well as part-time placement of students in afternoon and summer work¹

In several counties of New Jersey, there have been county wide vocational schools independent of the traditional board of education for many years. New York has recently undertaken a thorough program for the development of such schools, and Louisiana has 24 area vocational schools. These types of schools are expanding rapidly. The 1958 National Defense Education Act provides \$15,000,000 yearly for expenditure by the states for such schools. The legislation was caused by the desire and need for such schools and will, in turn, cause their continued growth.

These technical institutes have not attained a definitive character. Their relation to the regular program of junior college has not been defined. The extent to which work taken in these schools will be accepted for college credit is also uncertain. However, since they are terminal or semi terminal in nature, this problem will probably not be vitally important. The establishment of this type of school may eventually solve many of the job training problems of the high school and college. Nevertheless, it will probably take many decades before the need for job training at the high school level is eliminated. Moreover, the phrase often used in describing these schools "of more than high school and less than college" grade gives the school an indeterminate status.

THE EVENING SCHOOL

Evening schools offering business education were established as early as the Colonial Period. Private business schools have always had evening divisions. In some communities, night classes were organized in the public schools within a short time after these schools were established.

¹ Adapted from a statement by Margaret C. Carroll, Headmaster, Boston School of Business Education.

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At present, night schools usually follow the day program, their objectives and methods of procedure being similar to those of the day school.

For some students, especially younger ones, this is a satisfactory arrangement. It offers an excellent opportunity to the boy who cannot continue in the day school and who wishes to complete his secondary-school education so that he can enter college. Evening schools of this type should be staffed by day school teachers, or by persons with equivalent training. At present, fewer students need this kind of training. Many, however, find the program offered by the traditional form of evening high school utterly inadequate; they are interested in special forms of nonvocational education, academic or cultural. Others who desire special vocational education are not interested in what the evening high school has to offer.

Desirable Programs When an evening school limits itself to duplicating the business program of the day school—that is, teaching shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping—it displays an ignorance of community needs. Clerical workers and salespeople also need supplementary training, and this should be given them in the evening high school.

Opportunities for in-service adult training in business skills are literally unlimited. Small shop owners, special servicemen, specialized machine operators, and many others would be glad to enroll in evening courses as a means of studying ways for improving their job efficiency. The George Barden Act made funds available for distributive training of this type.

Organization of Work Evening work for students not interested in completing a high school program of training should be organized into short unit courses given once, twice, or three times a week for a period of not more than eight weeks. Longer courses might be organized for the few who desire them. The staff for this type of work should not consist of day-school teachers. Formal academic requirements should be kept at a minimum for students and teachers. The instructor must be a master in his field, but often the salary is not sufficient to obtain such a person. Hence, small tuition charges should be pooled with the contributions of the board of education, the local chamber of commerce, or service organization, to pay the salary of the teachers. The methods of instruction must also be exceptional. For certain types of work, individual instruction based upon excellent job sheets may be best, for group work, the conference method may be most satisfactory.

In Seattle, Washington, for example, the evening business education classes of Edison Technical School operate for three terms fall, winter, and spring Business subjects offered are

Accounting	IBM machine accounting
Advanced accounting	Calculating and
Business arithmetic	office machines
Business English	Multilith
Hy Speed longhand	Shorthand
Business law	Typewriting
IBM key punch	Machine transcription

The training in the Evening Class program is considered with work which has been taken in daytime classes for certificates in complete business courses

High school credit may be earned by the satisfactory completion of any of the courses listed above

The Minneapolis Vocational Evening School and Technical Institute offers business courses in a large variety of subjects such as bookkeeping and accounting, recordkeeping for small business, Burroughs, comptometer, and other business machines, eight courses in shorthand, four courses in typing, and various other business courses such as office clerical training, arithmetic fundamentals, art of listening, business correspondence, everyday grammar, handwriting, private secretarial duties, spelling, vocabulary building

Similar programs are available in most other large cities such as Buffalo, Chicago, and New York

Most of these evening schools follow a program similar to that of the West Evening High School of Minneapolis

An individual instruction plan is used in the evening school Under this plan, the student is assigned to a teacher who is a specialist in the field in which he is working The instruction is individualized, and the student progresses at his own rate according to directions Fewer students are assigned to each teacher than in the customary group instruction plan Diagnostic tests, remedial practice exercises, individual student-teacher conferences and assignments are features of the plan The assignments are custom built for each student according to his needs and interests The time required to complete a semester of work

will vary with different students. It is determined by the natural ability of the student, the amount of effective work that he gives to his assignments, and the level where it is desirable for him to start work in order to progress with success. It contributes greatly to both strong and weak students enabling them to become successful, independent students.

This plan is especially adapted to the needs of a high school graduate or other person wishing refresher or other courses to bring his background up to date for further study at college or other educational institutions. It is also adapted to the needs of a person who wishes to earn individual credits in a shorter period than is required under the group instruction plan.

THE HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE

The high school of commerce appeared early in the twentieth century. At one time there were more than thirty of these schools located in various large cities, especially on the eastern seaboard. Few have been added to this number since World War I.

When the high schools of commerce were first established, shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping offered the best occupational opportunities for boys and girls. Times have changed, but not all high schools of commerce have adjusted their programs to meet present occupational conditions.

In order to obtain an adequate enrollment, many high schools of commerce have been converted into cosmopolitan high schools. Some give formal college-preparatory curricula, others fail to provide for drop-out job training or co-operative instruction. Only a small number offer education in distributive occupations, contenting themselves with a few courses in selling and advertising.

Consequently, most high schools of commerce do not differ markedly from ordinary metropolitan schools, except for a larger enrollment in shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping courses. A few have kept up with the times and retained their essential character as specialized business schools by considerably extending their work in clerical and distributive occupations. An excellent and practical business education may be obtained in the progressive high school of commerce, indeed, for practical purposes, they have become full time vocational business high schools.

ADULT EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS

In Chapter XXIX detailed consideration is given to problems of on the job training. While this form of training is essentially a form of adult education, it by no means encompasses the whole of adult training. A great deal of adult job training must be carried on as retraining on a before service level. Some phases of adult training for business may, moreover, only be indirectly or marginally of specific job value.

Just as it is desirable for the community, either through its industrial plants or possibly its schools, to train people for initial service in skilled occupations, it is likewise often helpful to provide retraining programs for those made unnecessary by new developments in industry. The speed of change in our system of production is such that there is a constant resultant of unemployed due to technological developments. It is most unwise for us to put people of the age of sixty-five, and in many cases, even forty-five, on the junk heap just because their particular skills are no longer vocationally significant.

Industrial organizations are frequently willing to give initial training to young workers, but are often reluctant to give this type of training to the older workers. For this reason, it may often be even more desirable to give school training to the older worker, who has lost his particular trade due to technological changes, than it is to give it to the younger worker. There can be little doubt that a significant growth in adult school education is of value. It is altogether probable that many aspects of adult education will mushroom far afield and be mere reiteration of learnings that should be acquired in nonschool situations. It does not change the fact, however, that certain aspects of adult retraining are needed.

As our population continues to grow older, we must make better use of those thrown out of employment because of technological developments, simply because more persons in the United States will be attempting to earn their livings at these older levels. Adult education covers activities that men and women undertake voluntarily in order to improve themselves. Mature people, unemployed because of technological changes, can do either of two things: they may retire from gainful employment and pursue worthwhile leisure activities, if they possess some means of support, or they may undergo re-employment training. The adult-education movement can make a major contribution in both

respects. However, most persons who lose their jobs, must, for financial reasons, seek re-employment training. They have considerable occupational skill that can be turned to profitable use if directed into areas where employment is available.

When our adolescent population becomes stabilized, and the major adjustments in its education are made, more attention will be devoted to adult education.

The adult-education movement functions through many vehicles: adult institutes, labor lyceums, evening schools, recreation centers, and specialized schools. In most cases, existing educational facilities can be adapted to meet the needs of adults.

The adult-education movement is too recent to possess particular characteristics as far as business education is concerned. Considerable experimentation is needed, therefore, but unquestionably, adult education for business offers splendid opportunities and will, undoubtedly, become widespread in the future.

TELEVISION AND HOME STUDY EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS

The 1954 edition of this book dropped the discussion of home study training for business except for a brief comment on its use to enrich the program of the small high school. Since then, several experimental efforts have been made to use television for home study of shorthand, typing, bookkeeping, and other business subjects at the University of Pittsburgh, at the State College for Education at Albany, N. Y., in the Chicago Junior College, and elsewhere. Most of these initial efforts were subsidized entirely or in part by foundation grants. Several of them have been successful beyond all expectations. In the field of general education at the collegiate level, particularly in literature and science, the results have been spectacular. After the initial bloom of excitement wears off, some of the popular appeal may fade away. However, there seems to be sufficient evidence to feel that there will be substantial use of television as a means of self-study.

These efforts are too new even to offer a thoughtful opinion of the impact on the program of business education, let alone to give a definitive judgment. However, the area is sufficiently dramatic to attract funds that would not be available for less showy types of study. Within the next ten years it should be possible to give a far more definite judg-

ment about the value of television in the learning process, not only in the classroom but also for self-study and for supplementary help in other aspects of business education

CONCLUSION—THE TREND TOWARD POSTSECONDARY NONCOLLEGIATE BUSINESS EDUCATION

The evidences presented in this chapter and throughout this book clearly indicate possibly the most important trends in business education—the shift upward of vocational business education from the high school, and the shift downward of vocational business-skill training from the collegiate type of business school. There are many reasons for this trend (1) the desire for more “solids” courses in the secondary schools, (2) the concern that premature preparation for the job may result in training rather than education, (3) the wish on the part of business for more mature beginners, (4) the simplification of many office skills, (5) the increased cost of many office machines and their rapid obsolescence, (6) increased quality and quantity of on the job training provided by business at both the postsecondary and postcollegiate levels, (7) the demand for a broader liberal education for prospective managerial workers, (8) the demand that the collegiate school of business drop all types of learnings that might be labeled training (such as office-machine instruction) in favor of those types of business courses that can be labeled as educational in the most complete sense, (9) the concentrations of populations making area vocational schools more economic, and (10) the overcrowding of collegiate schools, which thereby forces the development of alternate types of schools.

The private business school, the junior college, the area vocational school, and less directly, other types of post high school institutions of less than collegiate grade are developing similar forms of training for business. Some of these types of schools may be integrated into others, and some may even be eliminated. There is little doubt about the trend toward this level of learning and that eventually one or several of these types of schools will become a major segment in the American education ladder.

The emergence of this type of school is especially important for business education. As has been indicated, there are clear evidences that business education is being pushed upward in the secondary school

program Even more important possibly is the tendency to allow less time for the development of job competency in high school Many business education leaders view this trend with concern Others look upon it as a sign of progress and hope that the increased efficiency and reduction in time demanded for job training will result in larger student enrollment and especially in larger enrollment of the more able students Nevertheless, it goes almost without saying that the reduction in time provided in the high school will result at best in no more than marginally adequate initial job skill It is, therefore, all the more important that further skill learning be provided on the post high school level The collegiate school of business has indicated quite clearly that it usually is not interested in providing the needed learning opportunities The provision of post high school types of institutions that will provide for the learning of such promotional skill is vital to business education There is abundant evidence of the vitality of such schools as shown in the effective competition among them They can and will provide an important service to business

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 What conditions led to the organization of compulsory continuation schools in practically every state?
- 2 List the institutional objectives of the continuation school Are they justified? Now? In the past?
- 3 What changes have taken place in the enrollment and function of the continuation school since 1929? Why? What may be the final place of the continuation school in our educational structure?
- 4 From what types of institutions has the full time vocational school developed?
- 5 What are the purposes of full time vocational schools? What is their curricular organization?
- 6 What is the place of evening courses for adults in business education?
- 7 How does the community affect the development of evening classes for adults in business education?
- 8 What peculiar problems confront the organizers of evening-school work in business?
- 9 To what extent has the high school of commerce made a place for itself in business education? What may be its future?
- 10 Why have educators been giving increased attention to adult educa

tion in recent years? Why was the continuation school used for adult education in many communities?

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Company schools have changed little since their inception, though slight variations have been made to cope with changing conditions in business and industry. The quality of the teaching, however, has been improved, for from experience firms have learned to give better training for their particular needs.

DEPARTMENT-STORE TRAINING

Possibly the most widespread and successful form of company training in the field of business is that given in the department store. This type of training was stimulated and developed by Lucinda Prince, founder of the Prince School of Retailing in 1905. Annually, thousands of new workers are trained in the selling methods used in the store, as well as in nonselling aspects, and are fitted into the proper niche. Training for promotion is also provided.

The procedures used by the different stores may vary, but their objectives are much the same. These aims are (1) pre-employment training, (2) continuation training, and (3) resource training.

1 *Pre-employment Training* New clerks are generally given from a day to a week of instruction before they are permitted actually to sell. The trainee, however, becomes acquainted immediately with store methods by personal contact. When he begins to work on the floor, he is sponsored by an older employee who receives extra compensation or other recognition for this aid.

Many stores have prolonged programs of instruction for new workers. Classes are usually small, and the discussion method, rather than the lecture, is used. Impromptu demonstration sales are frequently used as teaching aids. In addition to sales training, workers are given instruction in textiles, color, design, and other pertinent details.

2 *Continuation Training* Continuation training is supplied to experienced salespeople. Sales conferences are also held to improve the caliber of service. By these means, the employer keeps the employee acquainted with the inner springs of the organization, develops his interest, and makes him conscious of the merits of the company.

3 *Resource Training* Resource training is the type of training used by department stores, as well as by other business organizations, to prepare workers for advanced positions. Classes for such training meet during company time or after store hours. Frequently the training is

co-ordinated with programs offered in the public schools, colleges, universities, and other educational institutions

Almost every department store of any considerable size has an organized on-the-job training program. A considerable corps of skilled department-store trainers has developed, who are constantly working to improve their service. Unfortunately, little or no such training is given in specialty stores or in other distributive firms—and this is the key need in distributive education. Though leaders in distributive education are well aware of this, most attention is still given to department-store retail training.

THE NEED FOR ON-THE JOB TRAINING

Possibly the outstanding deficiency of vocational training has been inadequate on-the job instruction. The result of this failure of employers to give good on-the-job instruction has caused secondary-school and post-high-school vocational administrators to attempt to provide job training for many types of work that could be better learned on the job. This has been especially true of business education. Except for a limited number of office machine workers and a considerable number of stenographers, there is little specific pre-employment training required for business occupations. Some training supervisors in department stores have little patience with pre-employment training in merchandising. They are often quite willing to participate in co-operative training programs, not, however, because of the unique quality of the training received in school, but because it provides them with able and willing young workers for the initial jobs that people are reluctant to take on a full time basis. Furthermore, they are able through this procedure to select from among the part-time workers the more desirable ones for full-time employment. These are the reasons why sales organizations with high standards participate in co-operative training programs. The marginal organizations co-operate because they get workers for lower salaries and, in many communities, obtain free service. The real solution to this problem is not to attempt to put all forms of job training for business into the secondary school, or into the thirteenth year, or to provide co-operative training, but rather to provide competent on the job training.

On-the-Job Training Neglected Parallel to the zeal for the de-

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On the Job Training Neglected Parallel to the zeal for the de-

velopment of sound methods of instruction in high school and even in college, there is a pitiful inadequacy in instructional procedures in on-the-job training, except in department stores.¹ By far the larger proportion of job training must be given after employment rather than before. Vocational administrators in general, and business educators in particular, have been amazingly blind to the need for competent on the job trainers. Public school administrators require college graduation, including courses in history of education, methodology, educational psychology, and so forth, for those who are going to give pre-employment training. Yet on the job training is almost universally given by supervisors or fellow workers with no concept of the learning process. Learning procedures in on the job training are usually pure hit and miss processes. Learning takes place in spite of the trainer's lack of teaching methods, rather than because of his concept of good training methodology. Even in the largest offices, such as insurance companies, which employ thousands of clerical workers, training is usually provided on a purely accidental basis. Here is the largest single area of failure of American vocational education, and here is one of its greatest opportunities. This need has existed for years, but it was not until the pressure of war retraining that a thorough awareness of this problem developed.

THE TRAINING WITHIN INDUSTRY PROGRAM

During the war, the War Manpower Commission set up a Training Within Industry program that made earnest and often successful efforts to meet this training emergency. Training Within Industry (officially known as TWI) organized brief instructional programs in teaching procedures for job supervisors. The training program most frequently used was called Job Instructor Training (officially known as JIT). It was taken by over a half million war industry supervisors. In a ten hour instructional program, supervisors were taught the elements of good instructional procedure.

The magnitude and cost of on the job training during the war should, of course, have resulted in many specific contributions. Over \$300,-

¹ For an effective statement of the weakness of business in insisting on good pre-employment, as well as in-service training see Frederick G. Nichols "Are You Hiring People to Train—Or to Work?" *NOMA Forum* (August, 1949), pp. 5-7.

000,000 were spent on the service and over five million persons were given some form of training

Considerable use is still being made of the "J" programs usually in modified form This is particularly true of the adult level programs in distributive education Some private enterprise also is maintaining the use of these programs

LACK OF ON-THE-JOB TRAINING

Supervisors of large pools of typists or stenographers unconsciously do a considerable amount of training, but they are rarely recognized as trainers Although they probably spend more than half of their time instructing their subordinates and correcting their work, they have received no instruction in methodology except by pure coincidence

The almost complete failure of both small and large offices to give any consideration to on-the-job training in clerical work in the prewar period is astounding A few large insurance companies and, here and there, a large public utility gave some shorthand and typing instruction during office hours But this training was frankly an imitation of the training given by the public and private schools These organizations followed one of several different procedures

- 1 They permitted their relatively unskilled office workers to leave their assignments an hour or so early and provided an instructor who taught shorthand and typing in much the same manner in which it is taught in public schools

- 2 These workers were given one-half to three-quarters of an hour off from their scheduled work time and had to devote an equal amount of their own time after hours to the training

- 3 All training was given immediately after hours In almost all cases this training was given free of charge and in rooms of the company Some firms paid all, or part of, the tuition for unskilled workers in private business schools

THE NEED FOR CO-ORDINATING SCHOOL TRAINING AND ON-THE JOB TRAINING

Training cannot all be done at one time by one organization Just as most learning is acquired casually in the course of a lifetime and not

taught in school, so most skills and abilities that are required for good office work are learned by the mere process of working in the office. On the other hand, certain abilities, such as the theory of double-entry bookkeeping, can be best taught off the job in a school situation entirely separated from the office where the worker is employed. The on the job trainer would be foolish to attempt to take over the functions of either the school or job environment.

There are, however, numerous learnings that cannot be easily learned in school and that are difficult to acquire in a casual manner merely in the office environment. It is uniquely the function of the on-the-job trainer to develop these learnings among workers and supervisors. He must co-ordinate his instruction with that of the formal school program, and, as far as possible, create an atmosphere in which the environment of the office will create opportunities for learning. For example, he must make supervisors understand that they are not giving away inside secrets when they teach their subordinates to do their work well, but are creating more capable workers, and that this, in turn, will reflect the supervisory ability of the supervisor.

Up to the present, on the job training has been unplanned and accidental. New workers learned in spite, rather than because, of any help they received from their supervisors. It is the responsibility of the schools and business to co-operate in providing training in on-the job instruction for office supervisors.

Business and education have failed to realize that one of the more important, and in some cases the most important, function of the office supervisor is to teach workers how to do their jobs. Now that there is an awareness of this, failure to provide adequate teacher training for these important teachers of business education can no longer be tolerated. Some of this training can be provided in colleges. Even during the entire war period, no collegiate institution of business offered, let alone required, a course in on-the-job office instruction for its graduates who were presumably being trained for supervisory positions. These potential managers were provided with abstract generalizations about economics, managerial principles, and the mathematics of business, but the important function of showing new workers how to do their jobs well was completely ignored. Collegiate schools of business can no longer afford to neglect to provide such training.

Most office supervisors, store managers, and small business entre-

preneurs will not, however, receive their best opportunity for teacher training on the collegiate level. The community must provide for this training in adult schools. Obviously, the conductors of these training programs cannot be just high school teachers. They must be persons who have had successful practice in on the job training. Once there is certainty that the office supervisor is a competent on the job instructor, the school can safely relegate to the job those aspects of business training that can best be taught on the job. Then the high schools and the post high school vocational schools can devote their efforts entirely to those things that they can do best. (1) provide pre-employment training in those business tasks that need specific skill, and (2) provide background and related instruction in business understanding, so that potential workers will better understand the relationships between those things that they learned on the job and other job activities carried on in their offices and in other business establishments.

It is encouraging that a few schools have recently been co-operating in providing on-the-job training. The Goldey-Beacon College of Wilmington, Delaware, and the DuPont Company have organized a joint program for on-the-job training. Pace College, of New York City, has made arrangements for on-the-job training with business firms. For many years the Denver Opportunity School, and more recently the Boston Clerical School, have provided learning opportunities for those in need of retraining and additional training and for those individuals released by specific arrangement from work for on-the-job training. There is evidence that this trend will continue and increase.

AN EXAMPLE OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING IN BUSINESS

Most in-service training has been given in the field of industrial and scientific technology. Several fields of service, however, have worked out institutes for specialized training such as that given by the American Institute of Banking and the School of Insurance of the Insurance Society of New York. Outstanding in scope and application is the work of the New York Institute of Finance. This program, started in 1922 as the New York Stock Exchange Institute, now serves employees not only of the Exchange itself, but also those of brokerage houses, banks, and other types of firms concerned with securities and finance. Its board of advisors includes representatives of the New York and American

Stock Exchanges, the Federal Reserve System, savings banks, and brokerage firms. During the year 1959, the Institute enrolled 1,000 students each term in evening courses and provided correspondence courses for 4,500 students. Among the courses offered were brokerage procedure, investment analysis, work of the margin department, investment managing, accounting, business finance, business economics.

Responsible employees of New York Stock Exchange member brokerage firms are required to be registered with the Exchange to assure minimum competency. A period of six months' training is required for full registration of inexperienced workers. Registration is attained either by examination provided by the Stock Exchange or by evidence of adequate courses taken in the New York Institute of Finance.

Similar trends are developing in other fields, such as real estate. The gigantic firms concerned with electronic data processing have huge in-service training programs, and there is little doubt that, as individual firms become more automatized after having made use of the general in-service training given by their suppliers, specific training programs will be worked out in the individual firms to meet unique needs.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 Why has the department store given more emphasis to on the job training than other types of profit making organizations?
- 2 Why is there need for organized on the job training apart from that given in the school or by the informal acquisition of skill on the job? Can organized on the job training be overdone? What should be the control?
- 3 Why has on the job training been neglected thus far? What do you frankly think are its possibilities? Why?
- 4 Study the job-instructor training organized by the War Manpower Commission. Make further comment on the program other than the presentation given in this chapter.
- 5 What opportunities are there for the adaptation of the ideas and procedures of Job Relations Training into the regular school program?
- 6 Does Job Methods Training have application apart from specific job improvement? How is it related to training on a preschool and on the job basis?
- 7 Why has clerical training received more emphasis in the school than on the job and distributive training more emphasis on the job than in school?
- 8 What are the basic elements in good on the job training?

9 Visit a department-store training office in a larger community. Interview the trainers. What contributions does this program make to store efficiency?

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CHAPTER XXX

Business-Teacher Education

THE success of the educational process depends, in large measure, on the teacher. No doubt, some people are born teachers, but not many. Consequently, it is necessary to utilize the services of thousands of persons who become successful teachers through training and experience.

EARLY TRAINING OF BUSINESS TEACHERS

When business subjects were first introduced into the high school, the private business school was usually the only available source for teachers. The next step in business education was to draw teachers from one- and two-year normal schools. Normal school graduates would attend a private business school for a few months to learn shorthand, typewriting, and bookkeeping, preparatory to taking positions as business teachers in the high schools. Later, the normal schools introduced business training. At the opening of the present century, business teachers were occasionally recruited from newly established collegiate schools of business. These schools, as a rule, offered courses only in accounting and allied subjects. Secretarial teachers, therefore, had to be procured elsewhere. However, improved business training was by this time being given in some three-year normal schools, which graduated many qualified teachers.

Attempts have been made to provide basic teacher-selection examinations on a national basis. These examinations have received quite general approval and are well ahead of most of the local teacher examinations.

tions in that they stress professional understanding rather than mere accumulation of facts that should not be taught in high school anyway. In some of the local examinations, the subject matter requirements are equivalent to those of the state certification examinations for public accountants, yet these examinations make no attempt to obtain clarification of the purposes of business education, its problems, or the possible means of solving them.

THE PURPOSE OF BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION

Obviously, the purpose of business teacher education is the preparation of competent teachers in the field of business education. However, so much depends on what we mean by competent and by business education that the answer is not as obvious as it first seems. Certainly, a teacher should be competent in the specific skills he will teach. In our current situation, however, the skills needed in business are changing so quickly that it is of major importance that the teacher be willing to relearn and re-adapt his skills. Some teachers who were thoroughly competent a generation ago have become incompetent because they insist on teaching well the skills that were useful a generation ago but which are no longer used on the job—at least not used in the same manner and to the same degree. Obviously too, the good business teacher has thorough competency in the over all functioning of business. Unless he is constantly relearning this functioning, he will soon be dispensing antiquated learnings.

Similarly, in his professional courses, he must know the background and trends in the field as well as what is currently being taught. An appalling proportion of business teachers have no comprehension of the work of Frederick G. Nicbols, let alone of Leverett S. Lyon. Many have never heard of them and many other leaders. Automation is still a mystery to most teachers. They have given little or no attention to an education of suggested changes and to exaggeration of the changes that will take place as a result of automation.

We need better business teachers if business education is to serve its function well. While improved teacher education will not change the situation immediately, in the long run, it is primarily through improved business teacher education that business education will serve the community more efficiently.

PRESENT TRAINING OF BUSINESS TEACHERS

Thirty years ago, less than a quarter of the business teachers had earned the baccalaureate degree. Since 1930, a great advancement in the professional standing of business teachers has, however, taken place.

Today, few business teachers acquire their preparation in private business and normal schools. The majority attend state colleges and universities that specialize in business and education. This is as it should be, for private business and normal schools cannot, as a rule, offer all the training that the business teachers need.

MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS FOR TEACHERS OF BUSINESS SUBJECTS

Adequate preparation requires that teachers of business subjects should have (1) the skills and attitudes desirable for all educated persons, (2) training in business or in some phase of it, (3) a knowledge of principles and methods of teaching, and (4) a general cultural education.

The minimum requirement for teachers should be a certain level of ability rather than a certain number of credits. However, until the point of view of the American teacher and school administrator changes, the requirements will be in terms of courses rather than abilities. Many liberal educators protest against the formal credit system, yet perpetuate that system in their own schools.

ACADEMIC AND BUSINESS BACKGROUND OF A TEACHER OF BUSINESS SUBJECTS

What courses shall the business teacher be required to take in order to acquire adequate cultural background? At least one half of the time should be devoted to general courses.

The business teacher should be able to speak and write English in an educated manner, he should be aware of the social and scientific achievements of mankind, he should have a sound social and personal philosophy, an appreciation of the arts, a broad understanding and tolerance of humanity, and he should be able to get along with his colleagues.

Unless the business teacher understands contemporary civilization,

as well as his special field, he will not understand the relation of his work to that of the rest of the world

The following general courses might be required English composition, literature, general and biological science, American government, history, and a broad survey of mathematics The important thing is that these courses should not be offered in isolation The prospective business teacher must be able to integrate his basic learnings into a meaningful relationship with his life's work

Business Specialization Students training for teaching should take not only the technical subject matter they intend to teach but also general courses of the type offered in collegiate schools of business Their programs should include the general functions of business, such as banking, communication, and marketing, with specialization in one phase of business, such as accounting, secretarial service, or retailing The prospective teacher should also have significant business experience Certification requirements now demand from 42 to 48 hours of credit in business subjects

Some states still have comparatively low subject-matter requirements, others, very high New York State, for example, demands 36 hours in specialized subjects for teachers of business subjects The City of New York demands 42 points, and for heads of departments in business subjects, 48 points

New York State certification requirements are as follows

<i>Courses</i>	<i>Semester Hours</i>	
	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
Advanced typewriting*	4	6
Advanced shorthand*	8	10
Secretarial practice	2	4
Business law	4	6
Business management and organization	2	4
Money, banking, and finance	2	4
Economic geography	2	4
Advanced written composition	2	4
Business English		

* Applicants for a stenography license may offer shorthand and typewriting courses on lower than-college levels, provided a recognized college has by virtue of such courses on the lower level and as the result of examination exempted the candidate from identical courses given by the college, and provided that other acceptable courses set forth in the above list, are offered in lieu of them

2 For those specializing in the field of accounting and business practice

<i>Courses</i>	<i>Semester Hours</i>	
	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
Advanced bookkeeping and accounting	12	16
Office practice	2	4
Business law	6	8
Business management and organization	2	4
Business mathematics and/or commercial arithmetic	4	6
Money banking and finance	2	4
Economic geography	2	4

3 For those specializing in the field of merchandising and salesmanship

<i>Courses</i>	<i>Semester Hours</i>	
	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
Merchandising and salesmanship	12	16
Business law	4	6
Business management and organization	2	4
Business mathematics and/or commercial arithmetic	4	6
Money, banking and finance	2	4
Economic geography	2	4
Advanced written composition	2	4
Business English	2	4

Requirements in Education There is disagreement about the number and type of education courses that teachers should be required to take. Some liberal arts colleges object to any education courses, others wish to limit them to 12 points of undergraduate work, while a few require many more points.

New York City has established these requirements

- 2 semester hours in philosophy of education or principles of education
- 4 semester hours in adolescent growth and development including mental hygiene and in the psychology of learning
- 2 semester hours in the problems of secondary school education
- 2 semester hours in general methodology
- 2 semester hours in methods of teaching the subject in secondary schools
- 6 semester hours in observation and practice teaching

The total must be at least 18 semester hours. Those who have had one or more years of recognized teaching experience are exempt from

practice teaching and may reduce the education requirement accordingly

Colleges have been inclined to increase the number of methods courses for special subjects. For undergraduates, courses in the theory of methodology have doubtful value, as the discussion must necessarily be abstract. This tendency to increase education requirements has caused grave criticism of our teacher training systems.

AN EXAMPLE OF A BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

Ohio State University at Columbus, Ohio, offers a representative business teacher education program. This program is organized on the quarter system. It provides a minimum preparation for teaching all phases of business education in secondary schools. It meets the requirements of the Ohio teacher's certificate in business education and will also meet the requirements of most other states and of all states with minor changes.

First Year

(numbers refer to *quarter hours* of credit)

English	5	Psychology	5
Geography	5	Geography	5
Education survey	5	Science	5
Physical education	1	Physical education	1
Military or air science	2	Military or air science	2
	Psychology	5	
	Business organization	5	
	Science	5	
	Physical science	1	
	Military or air science	2	

Second Year

English	5	Beginning typing	0
Beginning typing 1	0	Beginning shorthand	2
Beginning shorthand 2	2	Sociology	5
Economics	5	Physical education (women)	1
Physical education (women)	1	Military or air science	2
Military or air science	2	Field service projects in edu	
Accounting	5	cation or an elective	0

Second Year (Continued)

Accounting	5
Beginning typing	0
Beginning shorthand	2
Theory and practices in second- ary school teaching	4
Physical education (women)	1
Military or air science	2

Third Year

Advanced shorthand, typing, and transcription	4	Advanced shorthand, typing, and transcription	4
Secretarial work	5	Office management	3
Marketing	5	Consumption economics	3
Physical education	3	Law of contracts	3
		Elective	3
Advanced shorthand, typing, and transcription	4		
Salesmanship	2		
Law of negotiable instruments	3		
Theory and practices in second- ary school teaching	4		

Fourth Year

Teaching of stenographic and clerical subjects	3	Retail merchandising	4
Student teaching in secondary schools	7	Principles of advertising	4
Teaching of bookkeeping and basic business subjects	3	Business communications	4
		Elementary economic statistics	4
		Elective	2
Philosophy of education	3		
Personal finance	3		
History of modern education	5		
Elective	4		

Students desiring to be certified to teach all business subjects with the exception of shorthand may substitute one of two options for courses in beginning shorthand, advanced shorthand, typing and transcription, teaching of stenographic and clerical subjects, secretarial work, office management

- Option 1 A minor in an approved nonbusiness education area
 Option 2 Courses in accounting, business organization, and economics as specified

BUSINESS TEACHING COMBINATIONS

The problem of teaching combinations for business teachers is perennial. In larger cities, business teachers can specialize in the presentation of one phase of business education. In smaller cities, this is impossible, and in many cases business teachers must be prepared to teach other subjects in addition. Adequate preparation cannot be given in all subjects, and yet the teacher who is going to get a job in a small community must be able to teach at least shorthand, typing, bookkeeping, and probably junior business training. To point out that such programs should not be offered in smaller high schools is beside the point. Young people take preparation to get jobs, and they will not get them unless they are prepared to teach what the community wants taught. The redirection of business education in the smaller high school should not be undertaken at the expense of the prospective teacher. Teacher training institutions must make their contribution to such redirection, but it must be primarily in developing an understanding of the problem in graduate students and among school administrators.

Teachers in large communities should specialize in some specific aspect of business education while maintaining their understanding of the other phases of the work. Graduate training should provide opportunity for this. On the other hand, it should also provide broadening for those whose undergraduate training has been rather narrow. Thus the usual state teachers college will for some time have to continue to give training for several phases of business education and leave the problem of specialization and development of further understanding to graduate work. Nevertheless the tendency of students in such schools to limit not only their training but also their interests to the traditional three subjects is unfortunate. When subject matter must be limited to the skills, it is especially important that breadth of understanding and interest be emphasized by business teacher trainers among prospective business teachers.

BUSINESS EXPERIENCE FOR TEACHERS

Everyone will admit that competency in business teaching requires adequate business experience. Some schools give credit for such work as

a phase of their curricular requirements, others require experience, but give no formal credit for it, and still others encourage it, but do not require it. In almost every case the measurement is quantitative rather than qualitative.

There has developed a respect for business experience, as such, which transcends its value. Some experience in business may be poor, untypical, or even false, and may do more harm than good as a background. It is true that usually a little experience is better than none. In some cases, however, teachers will assume that their limited experience is typical of all office or store practice and consequently misinform their students.

Business experience is necessary, but it should not be demanded at the expense of all other elements in the training of a teacher. When some persons with years of office experience become teachers, they insist even more than those with little or no experience on formal school standards, at the expense of real office standards. Some teachers, on the other hand with little office experience but with understanding and insight can by vicarious experience develop a sound attitude about office requirements in relation to school achievement standards. Business experience of the right type is useful, just as formal school training of the right type is useful. Either one poorly attained may do more harm than good. Obviously, an intelligent balance of time between these two and among the other factors that are basic to good teaching is desirable for the adequate training of business teachers.

GRADUATE TRAINING FOR BUSINESS TEACHERS

Everyone who expects to make teaching his profession, should acquire at least the equivalent of a master's degree. The doctorate, either in education or in philosophy, should be acquired by those who wish to be administrators or supervisors, for the work toward this degree is being increasingly used by examining and selecting authorities as a means of measuring a candidate's supervisory or administrative ability.

There is an increasing emphasis upon in-service, as well as pre-service, training. New York State, for example, requires 30 hours of graduate work before granting a permanent teaching certificate.

As students cannot take all the required courses in the undergraduate

program, the time is rapidly approaching when pre service requirements will amount to five, rather than four, years of college training. This tendency has certain drawbacks as well as advantages because it prolongs for a year the period during which the student is learning to teach rather than actually teaching. Ideally, a teacher should obtain a certain amount of real teaching experience after one or two years of college instruction.

Even now, the fifth year is widely recognized as a phase of the pre-service work, and hence it is quite different from true graduate study. In most universities, courses leading to the master's degree for teachers complete the preservice training instead of offering true graduate instruction. Thus, the fifth year often provides specialized business courses for graduates of a liberal arts college or for students who have pursued a teacher training program in a nonbusiness field. However, students who must begin their subject-matter specialization at the graduate level ordinarily require more than one year. Indeed, they should take one and one half years or two years of full time work in the specialty, in some cases, even more.

Occasionally, students who have majored in business wish to take further work in this field and, therefore, use this fifth year to obtain a master's degree.

Students who have had a considerable number of business courses (either in a collegiate or in a private business school), but who lack education courses, also require adjustment training in the fifth year. For them, graduate studies provide an understanding of educational psychology, the nature and philosophy of the secondary school, and the techniques of instruction most useful on the secondary level.

Still another group is composed of students who have sufficient undergraduate credits in business plus the minimum requirements in education courses, but who nevertheless feel the need of further training. In most cases, the recognition of this need is intrinsic, that is, the teacher himself feels the need for further training. In other cases, it is extrinsic, that is, the state departments or the city boards of education set up arbitrary requirements of 15 to 30 hours beyond the bachelor's degree. For this group, an enriched program in business and in professional education is useful and desirable, although there is also a need for more background education.

In addition to special graduate requirements in education or business, teachers should be initiated into the use of research and other techniques for improving education. This knowledge need not be acquired at school, but it may be obtained by actually studying completed research projects to determine their value for classroom instruction and school administration.

THE DOCTORATE IN TEACHER TRAINING

It is often said that the amount of time and energy spent in attaining an advanced degree is not compensated for by increased efficiency in the classroom. Perhaps most of the criticism of graduate studies is aimed at the type of work required for obtaining higher degrees, not the degrees themselves. A progressive teacher, among other things, should strive to obtain advanced degrees. As long as the doctorate is the highest academic honor, and as long as it influences the teacher's professional standing, he should attempt to attain it. Administrators should aid their teachers to fulfill such ambitions. On the college teaching level, the doctorate has become in many cases, wisely or unwisely, the "union card" to employment.

Graduate work, however, should involve more than merely taking additional courses. Some provision should be made for rounding out the teacher's education. If he has been trained in the social sciences or in technical business subjects, graduate work should give him an opportunity to acquire more knowledge of these subjects. If he is deficient in education courses, he should have a chance to broaden his knowledge in this field.

Studies beyond the fifth year of college should be unique in character and purpose. Since such courses ordinarily lead to the doctorate, careful selection of students is necessary. The students themselves should carefully weigh the usefulness of advanced study. To those who find their best opportunity in the practical details of teaching, the doctorate is of doubtful professional (though of some social) value. For those who are interested in administration or supervision, an advanced degree will shortly become an essential requirement.

Doctoral studies are usually divided into two types: the doctorate of education and the doctorate of philosophy.

In the doctorate of education, the objective is the ability to organize and utilize practical research. The courses should develop a mature understanding of social and economic movement and a mastery of the subject matter of the candidate's major interest and related fields.

Students who wish to study for this degree should be able to undertake creative projects, although these projects should not necessarily involve the submission of highly refined scientific research. There is no evidence that the ability to undertake research is correlated with practical schoolmanship.

Creative work, however, consisting of the preparation of worth while text material, school surveys, and similar projects, should be required. Study of the formal evidences of learning, such as ancient or modern languages, is unnecessary. In some cases even a study of advanced educational statistics is needless. Instead, thorough ability in school administration or applied education should be required. Hence, the doctorate of education should not be granted to anybody who does not have several years of efficient school service.

The doctorate of philosophy should be taken by a group that is restricted, not on an intellectual level but in opportunities for service. Languages and statistical techniques are usually required, and formal scientific research must be satisfactorily completed.

Candidates for this degree are being increasingly restricted to those who hope to find their opportunities in research and in certain phases of collegiate instruction. On the other hand students who are interested in school administration are turning to the doctorate of education, where they can acquire a thorough mastery of their special subject and at the same time make a practical contribution to education.

SUMMER SCHOOL AND EXTENSION TRAINING

The summer school program of business teacher training has become very popular in recent years. Many teachers go to summer school as a means of professional development. There is no question but that summer school attendance of a purposeful type is one adequate means of getting a broader point of view. It is usually unwise, however, for people to undertake training of this type until they have had some actual teach

ing experience Too many teachers go to summer school merely to use up time or to acquire additional credits so that they can receive a promotion in salary Such purposes are justified if required by local school systems

The real value of summer school work is to be found in the opportunity for contact with other teachers and in the opportunity of discussing problems of business education with people who have already given considerable attention to them It is well that business education is a growing field, and therefore no person, regardless of his recognition, can speak with final authority In a way, it makes it difficult for the teacher to find answers to his questions, because the leaders of the field cannot and should not attempt to make dogmatic decisions On the other hand, it gives the relatively inexperienced teacher an opportunity to participate in the program of improvement

It is quite likely that the summer school as a means of improvement in service will grow in popularity in the period immediately ahead Such training should involve more than listening to a more experienced person, it should require active participation of a workshop nature resulting in actually thinking through problems with other people Such experience should result in an opportunity to do better work on the actual job through the coming year Mere theory is useless, and mere practice does not result in continuous improvement Proper merging of these two qualities so as to improve the personal status of the individual teacher, as well as improve the field as a whole, should be the object of in service training for experienced teachers

Closely connected with these summer school programs is the extension training program offered by many universities and colleges This type of work is a useful complement to summer school training and can be done while the teachers are actually serving in school However, in some ways summer school work has an advantage over extension work taken during the regular school year, inasmuch as the student is freed of usual classwork routine and can, therefore, give his full time and thought to his studies On the other hand, he is separated from the actual teaching situation and, therefore, cannot immediately practice the work that he is undertaking Moreover, the best source of additional information and data for the beginning teacher is the actual classroom and the job environment into which the student will go

INSTRUCTION OF JOB TRAINERS

The preparation of teachers for the newer forms of business education, such as distributive education, office-machine training, and in service clerical training, is difficult because persons who combine a high degree of competence in the occupation with some cultural background and professional teacher training are rare.

The interpretations of the vocational acts of the Federal Government have resulted in special emphasis on specific and highly specialized job training. Experience and success, at least the equivalent of that of a journeyman, is the basic qualification for teaching. Those who have gone through this apprenticeship usually have not had the academic and professional training that teachers should have. The few who have had such training and have been successful on their job usually are earning more than they can earn on an initial level in school training positions. The present procedure is to recruit skilled workers and persuade them to get experience in training procedures, usually through the school. On this basis, they are offered training positions and encouraged to develop those aspects of their background in which they are deficient. As a rule, the teachers of industrial arts and of the standard business subjects are better qualified, academically and culturally, than the teachers of the highly specialized vocational subjects in the Federal program.

Some of the people who have recently become trainers in the field of distributive education have gone over into training because they have not been successful on the job. They are no better, in fact often less, fitted for giving instruction than those trained more academically. Others had unfortunate job experiences that induced them to go into training, even though they are competent in distribution. Some of these persons wish to do all their training on a promotional level. They are satisfied with the most superficial forms of study and insist on getting their programs across by promoting them through high pressure sales procedures with which they have been accustomed. This does not help to ingratiate them among the mass of teachers.

In general, however, job experience is the most vital element in the training of teachers in distributive occupations. Recommendations range from three to eight years of practical experience, which should be in the area for which specific training is given. Mastery of the occupation is

assumed College training is desirable, although under the George-Barden Act teachers are permitted to teach without such training

It has been recommended that prospective teachers of distributive education have 36 semester hours in the following courses

Marketing	Accounting
Merchandising	Statistics
Business management	Economics
Labor relations	Business law
Salesmanship	Business finance
Advertising	

To insure professional competency, 30 hours in the following courses are desirable

Business or vocational education	Educational measurements
Educational psychology	Social theory of education
Principles of teaching	Philosophy of education
Secondary education	Methods of distributive education

Teachers participating in co-operative classes in high schools should be required to possess more formal education than business experience, while teachers of specialized workers in evening schools should have more than formal education

THE STATUS OF BUSINESS TEACHERS

Teachers had, and still have, a relatively low status in the professional level of service, not only in the United States but also in most other countries. While business teachers usually earn more than those in the elementary schools, their total income and social status, compared with that of equivalent workers in the field of business, is not adequate. In some communities, people begin their lifework as teachers and then, after they have acquired a little experience and maturity, become workers in offices and stores. This is regrettable, the reverse should take place. People who have had job experience in the shop and in the office should become the teachers and should receive compensation that will encourage them to make this transfer from business service to teaching service.

In too many communities, and in the United States as a whole, people remain teachers of business subjects for too brief periods. For example,

in one state in 1940, the usual teacher of business subjects remained in service as a teacher of business for only three years and in that period had two different positions. Obviously, it is exceedingly difficult to develop a professional attitude among teachers when the usual period of service is only three years. In some communities the salaries are adequate, and in those places teachers do develop a professional attitude toward their service and remain in service for considerable periods of time. Closely connected with this problem of adequate salaries is the problem of tenure and the problem of providing incentives for growth on the job.

During the period of the 1930s there seemed to be an oversupply of business teachers. But, many of these prospective teachers were not adequately qualified, and therefore the oversupply of business teachers was more apparent than real. In the period immediately ahead, it is desirable to assure adequate selection of teachers, not after they have secured their certification as professional teachers of business subjects, but before they go very far in the program of teacher training.

As in the case of vocational students, the means of prognosis are not very satisfactory. People who are likely to be good teachers are likely to be competent workers in any other field of professional service. Moreover, there is the natural tendency for departments of business teacher training to measure their success by the number of students enrolled, rather than by their ability to place these students in teaching positions, and ultimately, by the extent to which these business teachers are successful on the job and can secure opportunity for further service. This is inevitable in an economic system of free enterprise. Schools, however, can do something to curb excessive oversupply by restricting numbers of teacher-trainees to those who can be placed, and by making certain that those who are recommended for positions are really qualified. In the past, this has not been done.

In some communities, teachers of business subjects work for accountants and in offices or stores after school hours. Some of this is desirable for it is a means of acquiring business contacts and of keeping informed on latest developments on the job. When, however, outside work interferes with actual schoolwork, as it does in many cases, it is undesirable and should be curbed. The wiser procedure would be to permit teachers to take six-months leaves occasionally or to have them do this type of work during the summer period.

In spite of the limitations indicated above, many teachers find business education a good way of life. We should, therefore, encourage, rather than discourage students considering business teaching as a profession.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

- 1 What are the objectives of teacher training? What types of schools undertake to train business teachers? Which are best equipped for this work?
- 2 List the types of students who should be trained as business teachers. Why do you consider them qualified?
- 3 What equipment is needed by an institution that trains business teachers?
- 4 Is the present content of the curricula for business teachers satisfactory? Why?
- 5 What should be the function of the undergraduate program of such training?
- 6 How much business experience should be required?
- 7 How much subject matter specialization should be allowed or required for prospective business teachers?
- 8 What are the more usual teaching combinations? Why are they important in planning business teacher training programs?
- 9 What should be the function of the first year of graduate work for business teachers? To what extent is it now a prerequisite for teaching?
- 10 To what extent is summer school and extension work of value to business teachers? Ask your colleagues for independent judgments and base some of your ideas on these.

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CHAPTER XXXI

Administration and Supervision of Business Education

THIS text has treated in some detail numerous specific problems of business education. Underlying all these, however, are certain larger problems, and the effectiveness of the entire educational program depends on the correct solution of these. These are recognized as administrative and supervisory problems, for they deal with the integration and co-ordination of the various functions of business education.

FUNCTIONS OF THE BUSINESS SUPERVISOR

Among the functions of the supervisor are (1) visiting classes, (2) demonstrating teaching, (3) organizing testing programs, (4) holding conferences, (5) evaluating of textbooks, (6) selecting teachers, (7) procuring suitable equipment, (8) co-ordinating school and business, (9) providing for placement and follow up, (10) representing the administration to the teachers and the teachers to the administration, (11) providing adequate publicity, (12) co-ordinating the various phases of the school system, (13) planning for work experience and co-operative training, (14) encouraging the effective reorganization of the business program and courses of study, and (15) providing for in service training.

Visiting Classes

The supervisor was formerly regarded primarily as a critic of the teacher. Today, he is looked upon as a counselor and adviser, prepared

to aid the teacher in the solution of major classroom problems by classroom visits and other means at his command. The supervisor no longer spends the period of classroom visiting in writing down mysterious criticisms of the teacher's work. He now attempts to discover the teacher's aim and how the lesson contributes to this purpose. He *commends rather than criticizes the teacher*.

As a reaction to petty classroom visitation, there has been a tendency for some supervisors to neglect this duty of constructive criticism. That is equally undesirable. Classroom work is still the core of good teaching. The supervisor should, therefore, know what is going on and encourage improvement in classroom practice.

Among the more common weaknesses of classroom practice that the supervisor can help modify are the following:

- 1 Too much talking by the teacher
- 2 Meaningless exercises by the students—work for the sake of work, which gives little or no evidence of resulting in learning
- 3 *Correcting papers in class*. Some of this may be desirable, as the effective teacher increasingly encourages self evaluation among the students. Nevertheless, a basic amount of paper work remains, which the teacher must do after class.
- 4 Limitation of work to the mere repetition of what is in the text
- 5 Neglect of objective teaching aids, especially the excellent texts that have been developed in some subjects
- 6 Lack of participation in extracurricular activities and failure to utilize these experiences in the classroom
- 7 Misuse or lack of use of visual aids, especially the opaque projector, slide films, and similar devices
- 8 Underuse or overuse of the blackboard, and especially its misuse
- 9 Incorrect and inadequate use of office equipment
- 10 Lack of planning—failure to work out formally or informally a lesson plan
- 11 Failure to be concerned with personality development on a comitant basis
- 12 Lack of use of community business environment
- 13 No consideration for the individual differences of students
- 14 Routine questions and answers
- 15 Failure to utilize the personal experiences of the students or overuse of the teachers' personal experiences

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- 15 Failure to utilize the personal experiences of the students or overuse of the teachers' personal experiences

Demonstrating Teaching

The supervisor himself must be a good teacher in order to infuse the demonstration lesson with practicality. The demonstration lesson may illustrate some particular technique in which the teacher is apparently weak, or it may take the form of a general lesson showing how various teaching methods may be interrelated. The presentation of demonstrations will also make the supervisor more careful of his comments to teachers about their work. No person is a perfect teacher, and by putting himself on a par with the teachers, the supervisor is able to be more intelligently and honestly constructive.

Organizing Testing Programs

The testing program in business education, the organization of which is one of the functions of the supervisor, should not be administered on a competitive basis. Testing on such a basis is undesirable in business education because it stresses factual information. The construction of the National Clerical Ability Tests should go a long way to help in this direction. Supervisors should utilize this contribution and help to make these tests still more adequate.

Holding Conferences

The conferences called by the supervisor, if conducted in a spirited manner, may be very stimulating. At these meetings, significant current events may be discussed, teaching devices may be frankly evaluated, and baffling teaching problems may be discussed and solved. Unfortunately many conferences are called unnecessarily. Sometimes they are called without adequate warning, and teachers consequently come with an antagonistic attitude. Proper planning, need for conferences, worthwhile activity, and the ability to quit at the right time are basic requirements for good conferences.

Evaluating of Textbooks

The supervisor should take the responsibility of assisting the teacher in the selection and evaluation of textbooks. In the absence of suitable

textbooks, the supervisor may give the teacher a worth while course of study to follow, or he may provide him with reading matter from various sources. Textbooks should be examined carefully before selection is made. Superficial and cursory examination should be avoided. It is impossible to make a science of textbook selection at present. By setting standards, however, and by having teachers participate in the selection, the process can be made more intelligent, and petty differences of opinion can be reduced.

Selecting Teachers

One of the basic problems of school administration is that of teacher selection. In the smaller community, and for specialized purposes, teacher selection cannot be done on anything other than a personal basis. Scholastic achievement, evidence of personal normality and integrity, and a capacity to get along with students, teachers, and administrators are characteristics of a good teacher. In the larger communities, examination systems can be set up as a partial aid in the selection of teachers. It must be recognized, however, that any examination system as organized at present will show serious deficiencies. In the attempt to be objective and impersonal, teacher examinations, like most other examinations, tend to overemphasize mere subject matter acquisition at the expense of ability to get along with other people, that is, the ability to set up a teaching situation. Examinations simply cannot be devised that will measure attitudes, abilities to get along with people, and the like, and therefore the use of objective examinations as a sole means of selection of teachers is definitely unwise.

The supervisor of business education should be either the chairman of a board of selection or a major participant. The administrator who hires business teachers without utilizing the experience of the supervisor of business training is seriously handicapping the program.

Procuring Suitable Equipment

One of the major difficulties in creating a good teaching environment is that of inadequate teaching. Poor facilities, lighting, too much or in adequate heat, creaky furniture, and disturbances outside the room interfere seriously with the orderly teaching process. Such inadequacies make

control of the group difficult, and if they are frequent and severe enough, they make good discipline impossible. Some of these are within the control of the administration. To ask a teacher to create a good teaching environment when he has all the other difficulties of classroom control is unsound. It is the function of the administration to provide good teaching environment and then to hold the teacher responsible for its maintenance. When the administration fails to create good teaching environment, it is failing in its essential purpose.

What equipment shall the supervisor recommend and in some cases procure for business subjects? Boards of education are proud of their shop equipment and are willing to spend thousands of dollars for it. At times they do not object to investing large sums for office equipment, but often refuse to permit the purchase of maps, charts, and other illustrative materials so vital to good teaching. Any device that will aid in effective teaching should be obtained.

Co-ordinating School and Business

The classroom teacher has, in addition to a heavy class load, the problem of dealing with extracurricular activities, lesson planning, examination and paper checking, and many other duties. He, therefore, does not have the time to make adequate contacts with business. It is generally impossible for him to attend the luncheon meetings of the various service associations. It is the function of the supervisor or director of business to get the co-operation of businessmen and to actually find means of making contacts with business situations for the teachers. It is then his job to see that teachers maintain these contacts.

Providing for Placement and Follow-Up

The importance of placement and follow-up of students in the field of business education has already been discussed. As was indicated in the preceding paragraph, the teacher is generally tied too closely to his class work to do much about placement and follow up. If the school has a special placement service, the supervisor must make certain that it functions efficiently for business students. If there is none, it will probably be necessary and desirable for him to undertake, or at least to guide, this function himself.

Representing the Administration to the Teachers and the Teachers to the Administration

Business education requires representation at headquarters. It is the function of the supervisor to give this representation and to give it well. He must see that the general administration understands the functions of business education and that the problems of the teachers are brought before the proper authorities, so that means can be taken for solving them. On the other hand, teachers often do not understand the problems of the general administration and fail to see why all their problems cannot be solved at once. Again it is the function of the supervisor to explain. This does not mean that he must always justify the administration to the teachers and the teachers to the administration, for in that case he becomes a mere alibi maker. When either is wrong, he should admit it and do his best to rectify the problem.

Providing Adequate Publicity

All too often business training in the schools is criticized with little or no justification. Businessmen are not justified in expecting students to add and subtract as they themselves can do after a lifetime of experience. The criticism, however, generally goes unanswered. The supervisor should be alert to this. Without taking such criticism personally, the supervisor should make it his business to make businessmen understand the diverse problems of the school. Publicity should by no means be only negative. The supervisor should show the effective placements of the school and demonstrate the many things the students have actually learned. This, of course, assumes that the placement and learning have been adequate. Publicity is not only futile but harmful if it distorts the facts. Of all phases of the school program, business education should be most effective in presenting its case to the public, but too frequently it has been among the least successful.

Co-ordinating the Various Phases of the School System

In some schools the junior high school teachers do not know, or sometimes do not care, what is done in the senior high school. The high school business teachers condemn the work of the junior high schools

without realizing the nature of the functions and the problems faced. Shorthand teachers present their work without regard to the teaching going on in the bookkeeping classroom. Bookkeeping teachers present their arithmetic applications as if students never had had any instruction in arithmetic. Here is an important function of the supervisor in providing for co-ordination and better understanding. In some ways, this is a key service of the supervisor, for once all the teachers in a school system work as a team, work with each other, work with the supervisor rather than for or against him, most of the other problems are well on a way toward solution.

Planning for Work Experience and Co-operative Training

Work experience has been taken up in detail previously, therefore, all that is necessary to do here is to indicate that the classroom teacher does not have the time or means for providing for work experience or more especially co-operative training. A person who has some relief from classroom work is needed for this function. In some retail co-operative programs such time is provided for the teacher, but even in this case the co-operation of a supervisor is very helpful.

Encouraging the Effective Reorganization of the Business Program and Courses of Study

Curriculum and course-of study revision is a process perennially engaged in by both supervisors and teachers. The supervisor should participate in this activity to see that it really functions, that surveys are intelligently made and used in terms of the results obtained, and that the revision is not merely a process of reshuffling identical materials. It is not always wise for the supervisor to undertake the reorganization program himself or even to dominate it. This may result either in getting teachers to criticize the results just "on general principles" or it may result in merely getting one person's point of view. There is no question that most high school programs of business education are in serious need of revision, but unless the reorganization actually results in improvement, the *status quo* might just as well be maintained, for change merely for the sake of change accomplishes nothing.

Providing for In-Service Training

The assumption is generally made that all the in service training needed by teachers is occasional course taking in a near by college or university, supplemented by monthly conferences. This obviously is not sufficient. No university course can be adapted without careful consideration of local factors. Monthly teachers' conferences may get ideas started, but the problem of teacher improvement can only be touched upon in such conferences. The supervisor should encourage group meetings or those who need additional help in solving specific problems. Reading of the right type will help. Course taking at college should be selective rather than at random. The supervisor should increasingly encourage the teacher to undertake self help in solving his teaching and related problems.

DEFINITE PLACEMENT OF RESPONSIBILITY NEEDED

One of the cardinal principles in the good administration of the school is that the teacher must be given complete control of the class. Petty interference on the part of parents and administrators lessens the capacity of the teacher to create an effective learning environment. The teacher should know just what his responsibilities are and should be made completely responsible for the maintenance of this responsibility, always provided, of course, that he is given the means of assuming this responsibility. The maintenance of good teaching situations—that is, good order in the classroom—is a difficult task.

In a very real sense, the teacher in the classroom is responsible for the health, and in some instances, for the lives of the pupils under his control. To ask a teacher to be responsible for the well being of children and then not to give him the means of meeting this responsibility is just begging for inefficiency and is, without reason, making the life of the teacher unbearable.

NEED FOR SUPERVISION

The evidence given indicates that supervision is an inevitable necessity. Human beings are, by their nature, inclined to become lax, if there is no effective means of measuring their achievement. The demand by some teachers, therefore, that there be no supervision is unsound.

nevertheless, an excessive amount may be equally unwise and even more wasteful than none

After all, in the final analysis, the teacher is to a considerable measure compelled to do a good job of teaching in order to create good order, not merely because he ideally wants it, but because in order to live his life during school periods he must have good order. Human beings, as a rule, simply cannot live under chaotic conditions, and the best way, in fact the only sound way, to get good order is to do a good job of teaching. Even without supervision, the teacher, by his very situation, is therefore compelled to do fairly good work.

The Number of Supervisors Needed

There is a definite point of diminishing returns in the number of supervisors that a school system can usefully utilize. When there are too many supervisors, they tend to run around giving each other orders and heckling the teachers. This is not because the supervisors are malicious but because they feel the need to justify themselves.

Even in the one teacher business school, there should be some provision made for this teacher to participate in meetings of local business men and to visit their offices and shops during school time. Arrangements can be made for a substitute teacher for a minimum or maximum number of days during the year for just such purposes. (Ten days would seem to be a reasonable number for most situations.) Where there are several teachers in a school, one teacher should be elected or appointed to do this work. He should have some free time every day and also have opportunity to spend an adequate number of full days at his task of co-ordinating the work with the community. Where there are two schools giving business education in a system, or where there are ten or more teachers, this co-ordinator should have just enough teaching assignment to keep him in contact with the realities of the classroom. The larger the number of students and teachers, the more are the responsibilities for co-ordination that develop.

LOCAL SUPERVISION OF BUSINESS SUBJECTS

In most high schools, the department head is supervisor in name only. He is so absorbed in his own classwork and departmental administration

that he finds little time for supervision. As a result, he makes suggestions that have not been thoughtfully considered and are not always usable.

In these schools, the only practical supervision is given by the principal, who, in many cases, is interested chiefly in discipline. The average principal has little time for the supervision of normal classrooms because emergencies monopolize his time and attention. Furthermore, unless the principal knows the aims, functions, and subject matter of business courses, he can supply little usable advice even if he has time.

Only about twenty-five cities in the United States have real supervisors or directors of business education, not all of whom can devote full time to the direction of business education, because of a large number of additional duties imposed upon them. A full-time director, supervisor, or co-ordinator should be appointed in every school with ten or more business teachers, or in every area with a population of 50,000 or more.

The supervisor of business education should be responsible for all phases of business education—distributive as well as clerical—and should be chosen because of his general effectiveness. When a community is large enough to justify additions to the supervisory staff, specialists in office training and in distributive training should be provided to assist the director of business education.

STATE SUPERVISION OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

In state education departments, as well as in those of larger communities, there has been a lack of heads of business departments and directors of business education, while simultaneously there has been almost a superabundance of supervisors of industrial education, home economics, and other phases of job training. In some cases, indeed, the supervision of business education has been delegated to an official not concerned with business training and lacking in background. The situation has been largely remedied in distributive education, because the requirements for securing Federal funds through the George Barden Act compel adequate state supervision.

The number of supervisors of business education as a whole is still limited. Only nineteen states (1958-1959) have supervisors of business education, and in only twelve of these does this official have control of both office and distributive education. In the other three states, the

authority for these two phases of business education is separate. In 26 states, there is a supervisor for distributive education but none for business education. Three states had no supervision in either field.

The state supervisor must help local teachers and supervisors promote their objectives with the local administration; he must constantly make the state education authorities aware of the value of business education; he must see that Federal funds, available for business education, are used properly; he must provide for the sound distribution of state funds; he must stimulate new ideas that will improve business education and encourage the state association of business teachers, or the business-education section or sections of the general state education association, to do more than merely have annual meetings.

FEDERAL INTEREST IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

The Federal Government has no direct control of business education or of any other phase of education in the several states. Since 1917 there has been a Chief of Business Education Service in the Office of Education at Washington, D. C. (with a lapse of appointment for several years prior to 1959). For quite a number of years after 1937, the Business Education Service was responsible for the distribution of funds for distributive education. After World War II, however, this function was given to a Distributive Education Service, and for some years no official recognition was given to business education as a whole.

Some leaders of business education criticize the Federal Business Education Service for not exerting greater leadership. In so doing, they misunderstand the philosophy of American education, which is strongly opposed to Federal domination. Teachers and supervisors of business education would strongly object if the Federal Chief of Business Education Service and his staff did attempt to exert more influence. The general direction and objectives of business education must be determined by the entire body of business education in relation to the purpose of business education as a whole and in relation to the trend of business. The Federal Business Education Service should provide the facts, gather them, publish them, interpret them, and suggest possible courses of action. In the field of Federal legislation concerned with business edu-

cation, the Business Education Service can suggest and propose, but the actual promotion of worth while legislation must be undertaken by the national and regional associations of business teachers and businessmen. Thus far, business teachers have not been so active as they should be in the determination of national policies. It is a mistake to expect such service from the executive branch of the Federal Government. The future path of business education must be determined from actual experience and practice and not through dictation from some central authority. It is well that the Federal authorities clearly recognize this.

THE PROBLEM OF ARTICULATION

The problem of articulation has been one of the focal points of attack in the last decade. The American educational system is organized in units that often act independently of each other. Due to the absence of a continuous and integrated program, considerable time, money, and effort have been wasted. In some cases, studies overlap, in other cases, student needs are neglected.

The junior high school has accentuated the problem of articulation because it necessitates two transitions—one from the elementary grades to the junior high school and the other from the junior to the senior high school. The solution is not to choose between the 6-3-3, 8-4, or 6-6 plans, but to co ordinate all units.

In the senior high school, a problem of articulation arises from the fact that pupils enter with dissimilar backgrounds, some having been trained under the 8-4 plan and others under the 6-3-3 plan. Also pupils will reveal disparity of achievement, although they have taken similar courses in different schools. The senior high school must make provision for this difference in educational background and achievement. The best plan is to organize two groups, but this is feasible only in a large school.

Transfer from other senior high schools presents another problem of articulation. Some schools begin job skills, such as typewriting and short hand, in the tenth year, others, in the eleventh year. As a result, transfer students often repeat the work when there is no need for their doing so, lose interest, and withdraw to a private school where the courses are more individualized.

NEED FOR CO-ORDINATION

The problems discussed in preceding paragraphs are further evidence of the need for co-ordination in working out a unified plan for the entire educational system. Failure to provide such co-ordination is one of the chief causes of poor articulation. In the senior high school, directors are responsible for only the last three years of the students' work. In the junior high school the frequent absence of departmentalization impedes articulation with the senior high school. A supervisor, or co-ordinator, for the entire system would promote unity and continuity. This would materially reduce the possibility of the higher school to hold the lower institution entirely responsible when students enter the higher school inadequately trained.

THE SELECTION OF SUPERVISORS

In a few communities the selection of a supervisor is unfortunately a matter of having proper contacts. In many cases, however, the judgment is not justified that appointment was primarily a matter of knowing the right person. Often an interested candidate simply made certain that the proper authority knew his qualifications, personal and educational. This procedure is not only proper but desirable. While in an increasing number of states the appointment of a supervisor is based upon certification in terms of courses in administration and supervision, the selection of a supervisor must necessarily be personal and subjective.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the functions of supervisors in the secondary schools? What are the special functions of a supervisor of business education?
2. Discuss in detail the relationships that should prevail among the administration in general, the administration of business education and business teachers.
3. Make a detailed analysis of the supervisor of business education local and state, in your area (state or region). Include the supervision of both office and distributive training.
4. What is the special function of the Federal Government in business education? Make recommendations for the development of the Federal pro-

gram of aid for business training What should be the limitations of Federal aid? Why?

5 Why are there problems of articulation in our school system? Mention some that exist (a) in the department of business education, (b) between the department of business education and other departments in the school, (c) between the secondary and collegiate program of business training, (d) between teachers and supervisors, (e) between school and business, (f) between business and society

6 How can teachers of business subjects who oppose the appointment of more supervisors of business subjects be encouraged to approve such appointments?

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CHAPTER XXXII

Curriculum Evaluation

THE process of curriculum making is not complete until the worth of the result has been evaluated. In this chapter, a series of basic criteria for curriculum evaluation are given. These criteria are, to some extent, a summary of the entire book. This is to be expected, for the construction of curricula and their evaluation are two aspects of a single process. Even those who would begin their course making anew, without reference to what has already been done, must consider the existing pattern in the final analysis.

Criteria or principles are not definitive, they cannot be used as exact measuring rods. There is still inevitably a great deal of subjectivity involved in using criteria as standards for measuring the effectiveness of a given program in business education. This is inevitable when a subject deals with the infinite complexities of business education.

No individual or committee evaluating a program of business education could, or would, use all these principles. On the other hand, different principles, standards, or criteria might be adapted for certain purposes, in addition to those given here. If the philosophical bases of the evaluators are at variance with those presented in this book, the criteria they would establish would naturally differ from those presented here. Even so, these criteria would be useful as a point of departure.

Thus, in a sense, these criteria serve a dual purpose. First, they summarize the generalizations that have been developed in this book. Second, they give suggested standards by which existing or planned programs may be judged as to their effectiveness in meeting the purposes for which they are established.

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING THE OBJECTIVES OF THE PROGRAM

1 *Every Program of Business Education Should Have a Statement of Purposes* This should be carefully thought through and should be determined within the community itself, though it must, of course, agree in spirit with the basic concepts of American democracy and with the system of free enterprise that is basic to American business. This statement of purposes should be determined co-operatively and should be written out in detail. While the statement of some individual leader or commission may be used as a base, it should be adapted to the local situation.

2 *Business Occupational Training Should Be Treated As an Integral Phase of the Entire Learning Program* For planning purposes it is usually desirable to give specific job training in specialized courses, but these courses should be a phase in an entire program and not isolated from other offerings. No job training will be successful that ignores general training, and unless the general training is adequate, the vocational training that is based upon it will usually be a skill that cannot be applied on the job. Note, for example, how useless shorthand is unless the student has had good training in English.

3 *Business Education Should Make Certain That the Graduate Has at Least One Occupational Skill Sufficient to Obtain an Initial Job* It is usually unwise to train for more than one specific vocational skill unless, of course, in certain localities it is found that initial workers hold compound or multiple occupational jobs, such as stenographer bookkeeper. These positions are far less frequent than is usually assumed. They are rare for the beginning worker.

4 *The Larger Responsibilities of Business Education Must Not Be Overshadowed by Training in Skills* Skill training is important because it is the means by which the prospective worker gets his initial position. Nevertheless, unless the worker has a means of winning promotion, he will find his initial opportunity of little value. Promotional opportunity arises because of the ability to make use of a specific skill in solving problems, in making adjustments, and in dealing with personalities. A broader training than that involved in sheer skill building is therefore required. For this reason, it is desirable that those who take business training take it in connection with a general educational program which

will really function, or that they take this program of business training after they have obtained a fairly comprehensive understanding of the community in which they are living

5 *Business Education Should Develop an Ability in Students to Adapt Themselves to Occupational Changes* A system of free enterprise is subject to constant change, and unless the student is emotionally able to meet such changes and adapt himself to new conditions, his ability to earn a living is likely to be seriously handicapped at a critical period in his personal life. It is unlikely that the community will be able to eliminate cyclical changes in business. Therefore, competent workers must occasionally expect unemployment. The ability to meet such unemployment is based on general comprehension of the community problem and the ability of the individual to adjust himself to it.

It is important for the community to make constant technological improvements in its economic procedures. These will necessarily result in eliminating workers from certain types of occupations and creating opportunity in other kinds of occupations. The workers' training and understanding, therefore, should be such that he can adapt himself to changing conditions and shift from work that is no longer needed to that which is becoming increasingly meaningful to the community.

6 *Business Training Should Be Based upon Realization of the Need for Developing a More Adequate Social and Economic Order* The enormous actual and potential capacities of the production system should be used for the development of more abundant economic provision for all the people and for each individual. This does not imply an advocacy of any new scheme of economic order. It should be freely admitted, however, that the American system of free enterprise can be improved, has been improved, and is in constant need of readjustment. Recognition of this need for readjustment then must be a part of vocational business training.

7 *The Best Current Practices Should Be Preserved* It is foolish for the school or for any other social institution to assume that it can make progress by itself. On the other hand, every institutional program must be conscious of its contributions to social and economic life. Only as business education becomes aware of the responsibility and contributes to it on a comprehensive basis will it be serving its complete function in the community. But it is equally important to maintain what has been

found workable Revision that discards the proved to delve into the unknown is likely to result in serious errors

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING CONTENT

1 *Secondary Schools Should Develop Well rounded Individuals with Adequate Competency in Business Activities* The early years in the secondary school should give the students an understanding of the major aspects of contemporary life as they relate to the students themselves and to the community as a whole This knowledge, can be acquired in language, science, literature, mathematics, and business courses

Does the school have a program of study in which the relation of business and science to the community is considered? A program that provides an orientation course in science, but not in business, is inadequate

This is especially important because many who go into business life do not take a business program while in school, just as some who do take a business program do not engage in a business occupation

There has been too great a tendency for educational programs to specialize In so doing, they prevent the worker from developing a complete personality and keep the community from profiting by the training of the individual, and they hinder the individual in making a maximum social contribution

2 *Business Education Must Focus the Attention of Students upon the Social Value of Their Field of Service* It is futile for the school to attempt to make prospective workers completely conscious of their contribution to the community and to ignore the income that they will receive for their service There is little question that primary emphasis should be placed on the service to be rendered and the monetary return It is not too early, nevertheless, to begin to make the worker realize that only as he renders a contribution to the community will there be a permanent position for him and opportunity for promotion

3 *Students Must Be Prepared to Face Business Realities* Students sometimes find that business practice runs counter to their conception of what is right and wrong It is probably undesirable to give students a full awareness of the discrepancy between ideal conduct and practice,

however, the student must be given an understanding of the likelihood of such procedures and be made to realize that incidents of this type are not to be assumed as general practices. The mere fact that there are occasional deviations from good business procedure is no more evidence of what is typical of business than the fact that there are occasional deviations from sensible conduct in the school environment. It is the teacher's obligation to give the students perspective in their adjustment to business practices.

4 *The Wage Earner as an Element in the Economic System Should Be Given More Attention* The labor movement in its influence upon economic life should be made clear. The problems of the white-collar worker must be given consideration.

No one can understand the nature of trade unions, organizations of manufacturers, businessmen, and industrialists unless he knows the origin of these associations and recognizes the contributions government has made and failed to make in providing for reconciliation and adjustments of differences. Thus, comprehension of the historical antecedent for present practices is highly important. Only by understanding what has happened in the past can the student or the young worker understand the differences that are now to be found within the camps of labor and among businessmen, not only in their attitudes but also in their practices toward each other.

5 *Students Should Be Given an Awareness of the Special Abilities That Will Be Needed by Them in Order to Achieve Adequate Economic Self-sufficiency Through Their Chosen Occupations* Occupational guidance should go beyond the level of immediate requirements for the beginning occupation. A student must be given a preview of the further procedures he must undertake to develop himself on the job and as a member of the entire community.

6 *Instruction Should Emphasize Present Activities* The school should teach the various activities that students are going to undertake in actual life situations. However, if this principle is accepted, much of the present business program becomes invalid, since it is contrary to current business practices. On the other hand, many educational philosophers believe that the school should undertake only those activities that are not adequately developed outside of school.

Which of these points of view is the sounder? Is there a significant

conflict between the two? The business program in the secondary schools will differ according to the philosophy it embraces

Actually the answer to this problem is that as far as possible those activities in which the student will engage in the future should also be taught, but should be expressed in terms of the student's present interests and not in terms of adult environment

7 In Training for Specialized Jobs, the Learner Should Be Made Acquainted with Related Services So That He May See His Work in Relation to the Larger Occupational Area Only as the student is made aware of the relationship of his work to the work of the entire community can he feel that his work is important, obviously, no one will do a good job, in the long run, unless he feels that his work is definitely worth while This realization will, moreover, help to make for easier occupational adjustment when and if it becomes necessary

8 Knowledge of the Language of Business Is Fundamental Business is increasingly becoming a technical service, therefore, knowledge of the technical terminology is essential to the prospective businessman Business must strive with increasing effort toward a uniform and standardized terminology Until this is attained, it will be difficult to teach exact terminology It is incumbent, therefore, upon business teachers to encourage and aid business in the development of an exact terminology, so that the teaching process itself may be more exact and simplified, and the over-all field of business may be better coordinated

9 Even in the Smallest Schools, Awareness of the Problems of Earning a Living Must Be Given Some Attention In fact, in some ways, such understanding is more important than specific training It may be more necessary in the smaller community than it is in the larger In the smaller community, there is often less occasion for gaining an understanding of the infinite variety of opportunities available and how to meet them, and students leaving the smaller for the larger districts should have preparation

10 Personality Should Be Developed in Business Programs Directly and indirectly the personalities of students should be made more functional and effective in dealing with individuals and groups Those needing special attention should be provided with individual opportunities for personality and character growth

CRITERIA FOR ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT

1 *There Should Be a Specific Purpose for Each Course.* Each course should have a focal objective. Incidental objectives should be synchronized with the main purpose, they should grow out of, and be related to, the key goal. A good example of a violation of this principle may be seen in the conflicting objectives of the many courses in bookkeeping taught today.

Not only the teacher but also the student should be aware of the key objective of the course. Sometimes it is not wise to emphasize student awareness of concomitant goals, such as personality development, for example.

2 *Content Should Be Determined Objectively.* Content should be based upon objective data as far as possible. Courses with specific occupational purposes should be developed out of careful analysis of the positions for which students are being prepared. The subject matter of general business courses should be determined by analyses of cross-sections of business activities, consumer activities, domestic monetary affairs, and the like.

There has been much talk about the objective determination of the curriculum, and some studies have been made, but their results have not been sufficiently specific in most cases to be adapted to teaching content.

3 *Collective Opinion of Recognized Authorities Should Be Considered.* Where objective data are not available, the collective opinion of recognized authorities may be used as a partial means of evaluating data. Such opinions, however, should be carefully selected, for authorities often tend toward bias.

The weakness of such procedure is obvious. It may emphasize conservatism if the leaders are set in their ways, or lack of realization of classroom teaching problems if the leaders have been away from the teaching environment of the secondary school too long. Yet, in general, those who have been given recognition for forward looking leadership based on experience can make worthwhile contributions.

4 *Advisory Committees of Businessmen Should Be Established.* While such groups have definite limitations and depend upon intelligent selection and leadership for their effectiveness, they can do much good. Such groups, all too frequently, are mere free-dinner gatherings which

provide a screen of motion-making for doing nothing. At their best, they are an excellent vehicle for establishing better community relationships and for implementing the means to attain the established needs of business education.

5 Titles Should Explain Present Aims and Content The titles of curricula and courses of study should be determined by their purposes and contents. Titles that do not accurately describe content are misleading to both teachers and students. Unless students who complete the bookkeeping curriculum obtain jobs as bookkeepers, the program should not be called a bookkeeping curriculum. If the course in office practice is a finishing course for stenographic students, it should be labeled accordingly.

As conditions change, it is not always possible to keep course titles exactly in line with the program offered, and it is possible to be so zealous about correct labels that the actual content is seriously limited in scope. Nevertheless, a conscientious effort should be made to prevent the difference between course description and content from becoming so great that the value obtained by the student, as compared with those offered, is tinged by fraud.

6 Curriculum Prescriptions Should Be Limited Courses prescribed for a given curriculum should be limited to those needed to achieve the purposes of that curriculum. Does the program include courses that the teacher thinks are "nice," but that are actually unessential? Does it include academic courses because of their traditional value or because they meet contemporary needs?

To what extent, for example, is economic geography an essential in the business program? Unless there is sound evidence that it is uniquely practicable, it should not be prescribed, though it may well be encouraged as a desirable elective.

7. Grade Placement Should Be Given Careful Attention The basic course, that is, the core of the curriculum, should be planned so that each unit of instruction is offered when it is most useful to the student. How can this be determined? How adequate is research in grade placement? Can we determine with any degree of accuracy whether elementary business should be given in the eighth, ninth, tenth, or eleventh year?

Educational research has not advanced to the level at which it is possible to give valid answers to these questions. Therefore, placement of

subject matter will continue to be a matter of tradition and expediency. Possibly, this is the only basis that ever can be found. In that case, the teaching material should be adjusted to the learners' abilities after the grade placement has been decided upon.

8 Proper Sequence of Subject Matter Is of Major Consequence Should the school insist on one or more sequences in the curriculum? Apart from the core program, should students be permitted to take courses at random or be compelled to follow a sequence? If given freedom, boys and girls are inclined to take a smattering of everything and thus learn nothing thoroughly. Perhaps the secondary school should sanction this natural tendency, in order to give the student an opportunity to become acquainted with many areas of interest.

Only to the extent to which adequate answers to these questions can be given can curriculum evaluation determine the extent to which teaching materials should be arranged sequentially and what variations in sequence should be offered.

9 Election of Subjects Requires Better Guidance. Every student should have an opportunity to elect courses that interest him. Should electives be comparatively few or numerous? What proportion of the program should be devoted to electives for various types of students? How wisely do students choose electives? Are they chosen because of genuine interest or because they are easy? How much guidance should be given in the selection of electives?

At the beginning of the twentieth century, under the influence of Charles W. Elliot, a strong tendency developed for the multiplication of electives and for scheduling a large portion of the students' programs as electives. Recently, there has been a reaction against this, and now the practice of assigning a large portion of the program to so-called core-curriculum material is growing.

10 Selection of Students Is a Difficult Process Obviously, the key to the success of any vocational program is intelligent selection of students. In many cases, prognosis is not so efficient as it might be, but the means available for prognosis at present are far better than their utilization. Moreover, the opportunity for transfer from programs in which students are found to be unsuccessful is not adequate. It is important for students to have the opportunity to transfer as soon as possible from job-training programs in which they realize their inability to meet

standards, and for them to find opportunity in other areas, with no significant difficulties in transfer

11 *Present Abilities Should Determine Content* A definite system of pretesting should be organized in order to prevent duplication of subject matter, particularly in the social business subjects. Excessive overlapping of content destroys student interest.

When students and teachers feel that the subject has already been learned, they are inclined to slight it. Consequently, a subject may be repeated several times and still remain unmastered. Learning up to only the level of knowledge at several points merely results in rapid forgetting each time. If the subject matter has been completely learned once, only occasional restudy is necessary. Superficial learning results in a confusion of purposes, and, in consequence, the goal of the course is often lost. When assignments become an end in themselves, they accomplish little except to keep students busy—and often not effectively.

12 *Not All Students Should Take Job Programs* Do schoolmen know enough about the occupational life of individual students and about the occupational life of society ten years in the future to permit the school to give each student specific vocational training? At the present time, it is impossible to give vocational training for all occupations with a reasonable likelihood that it will result in vocational application. Therefore, a considerable number of students in high school, in junior college, and even in college, must take general programs that appeal to them avocationally or socially.

13 *Training for Specific Jobs Should Be Given Close to the Time of Actual Use* If this principle were adopted, a training program requiring one semester would be given the last term of high school, a program requiring two years would be given during the eleventh and twelfth years. If youth or other factors make it quite likely that there will be a gap between high school training and occupational use, then such training should be given in a post high school program, either in junior college, a private business school, or some other adequate institution.

14 *Short Intensive Courses Should Be Emphasized in Preference to Extended Courses* However, in order not to upset the basic educational program of the school, there is an increasing tendency to defer specific job training to the post high school level where intensive training is more

in keeping with the spirit of the institution and the objectives of the students

15 Changes Should Be Made on the Basis of Evidence of Need and Study of Outcomes Curriculum revision is a continuous process. It should be carefully undertaken and based upon practical experimentation. Such revision should be a co-operative procedure in which all staff members participate and in which all resources are used, leadership must, however, be carefully determined and well selected.

Administrators like change, and teachers become bored with the same type of offering year in, year out. This often creates the urge to change the program merely to create variety. If it does not upset the school too much, such change in itself has a stimulating effect. When arbitrary changes take place too frequently, they may keep the school in a constant turmoil and prevent the orderly process of teaching. On the whole, it is best to continue a tried process until reasonable evidence shows the desirability for a change in content and method.

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING METHODS

1 Instruction in Business Education Should Be Based on the Use of Various Types of Teaching and Learning Materials The method used should be adjusted to the conditions and needs of the learning to be developed, and to the students as a body and as individuals. All methods of learning should be utilized, not only the formal and traditional procedures.

There is no sharp distinction between the types of teaching that may be used in different subjects. Naturally, in a skill subject, certain methods will be emphasized, while in a social business subject, others will be used to better advantage. In every subject, the ultimate problem is the whole growth of the student. Motivation, interest in teaching, and other factors also are determined by the individual case rather than by the subject matter as such. Therefore, all devices possible should be harnessed to improve teaching. This is especially true of objective aids. Visualization has not obtained the wonderful results some of its proponents suggest, but it certainly does have significant opportunities for stimulating learning and improving the demonstration of specific techniques.

2 *Training Should Be Sequential* In shortband, and to a limited degree in bookkeeping, there has been a fairly sound sequence of subject matter, although it is agreed that the sequence is not so satisfactory as it should be. In general business subjects, unfortunately, subject matter seems to be almost lacking in sequence. Some material that quite evidently might better be taught in the senior years is taught in the junior high school. The reverse is also true. Moreover, because of lack of sequence, materials are duplicated in several, if not in many, of the general business courses. This is undesirable because it results in lack of interest on the part of students, in superficial teaching, and in many unproductive repetitions, all of which are not conducive to mastership.

3 *Topical or Unit Treatment of Subject Matter Should Be Stressed* All subject matter should be presented as meaningful units or topics. These topics, however, must be sufficiently small in scope so that they can be comprehended by the student in one learning situation. This means that, ordinarily in school development, not more than ten individual steps in the particular skill should be taught at one time. These skills must always be developed as a unit in the presentation to the student. If the unit is too large, it must be broken down into subunits. This subunit must be made understandable to the student as a specific topic, then the various topics can be combined into a more comprehensive and larger unit—but this must come after the individual units have been mastered. Of course, preceding the presentation of any, the ultimate relationship of all must be made clear to the student.

4 *Use the Direct Approach in Teaching Rather Than the Indirect or So called Principles Approach* Teachers should present their material so that it starts with a specific point and works up to a generalization. As a matter of fact, however, this is not always possible. No presentation can be completely direct. If it could be, there would be no point to teaching. If comprehension could be achieved at one visualization, then the school would have little purpose. But the ideal of keeping the presentation as close to the actual use-situation as possible should be constantly kept in the foreground by the teacher. Otherwise the school room, which itself contributes to the teaching of generalities rather than specific facts, will inevitably drift farther and farther away from direct presentation toward the generalities that all too frequently mean little to the beginning student.

5 *Motivation of Learning Is Necessary* Obviously, no learning will

he meaningful to the student unless he understands the purpose of it and has himself become interested in it. This is so self-evident that it hardly needs repetition, except for the fact that it is constantly ignored by not only the beginning teacher but by those with years of teaching experience. Preliminary teaching that results in increased interest in the actual learning is rarely wasted. All of it is wasted if it does not really have the effect of keeping the student interested in the purpose of the work.

6 *Practice Must Be Meaningful* The tendency of the classroom is to encourage meaningless practice. Empty repetition, as such, detracts the student from the purposes of his work and tends to make him lose interest. Practice is useful only if the teacher and the learner can see an improvement because of it.

7 *Learning Must Be Analyzed* As the student acquires skill, he often learns incidental practices that are harmful. It is the function of the teacher to make the student aware of the effects of these incidental undesirable practices. Only as the student knows the undesirable elements in otherwise satisfactory work will he be able to improve. In reverse, poor procedures often contain many desirable incidental elements that should be retained as the poor practice is dropped.

8 *Business Education Must Involve Student Activity Based upon Actual Business Procedures* All too frequently, the classroom work in business education is completely devoid of actual job experiences. At certain levels of the learning process this is essential, but it should not be carried to the level where the skills are to be integrated for actual use.

In the business-education classroom, students should share responsibility for classroom activity, and opportunity for the exercise of leadership should be abundant.

9 *Recognition Must Be Given to Individual Differences.* Business educators should be alert to adapt learning to individual limitations, they should encourage special individual aptitudes. Business education cannot insist on arbitrarily uniform outcomes among individual pupils, among schools within a community, among communities within a state, or among states within a nation.

10 *Work Experience of Some Sort Should Be Characteristic of the Business-Training Program* The more nearly this work experience is identical with actual work, the more satisfactory it is likely to be.

It is desirable that work experience be of the type for which pay is given. On the other hand, this is not the sole standard of desirability. Economic return for the pay may, in many cases, be sacrificed in order to obtain more desirable types of experience. This experience may range from worklike experience in the classroom to actual experience with responsibility on a pay status equal to that of regular workers in an office or in a store.

Co-operative training is a most useful form of work experience. Co-operative training is an element in effective job training, but it can be rarely used as the total of the training program. While greater expense for this training is justified, it should not be permitted to detract from good classroom instruction.

11 Standardized Tests Should Be Used to Determine Aptitudes and Achievements Complete use of standardized tests should be made with a thorough awareness of their limitations, so that the testing process does not become a pseudoscientific mechanical substitute for the human evaluation that is fundamental in the learning process.

Such testing should be provided, not only to determine ability to learn but also to determine actual attainment of job standards.

No adequate prognostic tests have been developed in shorthand typing or bookkeeping. Personality and attitudes testing is far from scientific, therefore, personal judgment must be given, which is often superior in validity to objective testing procedures. Nevertheless, even in this field it is desirable for the teacher to set up objective bases for the better utilization of subjective judgments.

12 Achievement Standards Should Be Provided for All The basic course should be planned so that every normal student can achieve satisfactory grades in it. Are the basic courses adapted to the needs of the individual student? Do they challenge the most intelligent and provide the dull normal with some worthwhile motive, or are they primarily or wholly concerned with the average student?

As far as possible, these standards should be known to students, and allowing for individual deficiencies, should be adhered to. Only as the outcomes of learning are determined and have a definite relation to the planned purpose does the course have real integrity in the school program. There must be some tangible outcome for every course scheduled so that teachers and students alike will have respect for the attainments accomplished as a result of course activity.

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

1 *Guidance in Business Education Is an Organized Service to Help Students Make Adjustments to Occupational Life* As such, it must be co-ordinated with educational guidance, personal guidance, and any other problems, recognized or unrecognized, that the student faces

This means that, while the business teacher may not be the primary guidance officer, he does have responsibilities for co-ordinating the various forms of guidance. In many schools, educational guidance is separated from personal guidance, and occupational guidance is separated from both. The teacher of business subjects, therefore, is in a unique position to integrate these various forms of guidance for the prospective business worker.

2 *The Student's Stay in School Should Be Determined by the Individual's Needs and Those of the Social System and Not by the Caprice of Fortune* In a system of free enterprise, there is inevitably a considerable amount of chance in the results of any form of training. The teacher cannot avoid this possibility, and even probability, in his guidance. He must make the student aware of the elements of chance governing the degree of his success in the use of his training. Everyone should have a chance to develop according to his individual ability, so that everyone will have at least a minimum opportunity regardless of his ability.

The secondary school program should provide all normal adolescents with the opportunity of self realization, in keeping with (a) the preservation of what is best in our social heritage, and (b) the gradual improvement of the social system.

3 *Placement and Follow up Are Basic to Vocational Business Education* Without these procedures job training is likely to be sporadic and its results, good or bad, a matter of chance.

Under most conditions it is desirable that placement and follow up be provided by a special service in the school system, or by an outside agency closely connected with the school. If such service is not available, it is the function of the business teacher to provide it.

After the student has been placed in the job, it is the function of the school to make certain that the student is efficient as an initial worker. It should also identify possible inefficiencies in training and utilize them as a basis for improving the program of training in the school. If the

school can provide specific supplementary training that will make the worker definitely more efficient on the job, the school can encourage both the alumnus and the employer to be real supporters of the school program

CRITERIA CONCERNED WITH ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

1 *A Competent Corps of Teachers Is Basic to Good Training* This must be a co-operative group, striving toward a common purpose. Differences in training and in points of view are desirable and should be encouraged, but not to the extent that they result in bickering and inability to get along.

It must be realized, moreover, that in the secondary-school business program, widely different points of view in regard to training programs are not altogether desirable. Teachers may differ in regard to their methods of achieving results, but there should be a considerable degree of common understanding as to general purpose. As far as possible, each teacher should be permitted to express his individual personality in his work. Nevertheless, there are times when one standard must be accepted. Unless various teachers can be sufficiently co-operative so as to accept a common procedure, the school program will tend to maintain a *status quo* and eventually lag considerably behind the progress that has been maintained in business education as a whole.

2 *Business Teachers Should Be Carefully Selected* Selection of teachers must be determined in basic terms of formal requirements as set up by the state, the community, and good practice. These formal elements are not, however, so important as personal factors.

3 *Teachers Should Have Business Experience* There is no substitute for meaningful experience in the office or shop. Business experience requirements, therefore, should not be superficially checked. The teacher's experience should be probed to determine its actual worth.

4 *Supervision in the Classroom Should Be More Than an Incidental Part of the Work of Many Supervisors* Often it is carried on in a perfunctory fashion, and judgments are based on trivial elements in the classroom activity without considering the ultimate purposes. Occasionally, supervisors limit their entire activity to classroom visitations. Such limitations are equally undesirable.

The supervisor should be able to visit a classroom without causing the teacher to become upset. This cannot be accomplished merely by telling the teacher to be at ease. If, moreover, the supervisor merely visits and contributes nothing during his visit, supervision is futile. A supervisor can make himself welcome by first inviting those whom he supervises to visit his own classes and by encouraging reasonable criticisms from the teachers. Thus, he will get his instructional corps to realize that he does not pretend to perfection himself. Improvement of instruction is a mutual achievement. Only as the supervisor is willing to submit himself to the same evaluational process to which he subjects his teachers can he secure their full co-operation in the improvement of classroom work. Regardless of the emphasis on extracurricular activities, it is the activity in the classroom that is still basic to good teaching. Such co-operative supervision, therefore, is all the more important.

5 *There Should Be Genuine Good Will Among Supervisors and Teachers* One of the reasons for present inadequate supervision in business education and for the failure to appoint city and state directors of business education is the fear among business teachers that such supervision will be repressive rather than stimulating, that it will narrow rather than expand their opportunities. There is just enough truth to this fear to discourage teachers from realizing the fallacy of this conception.

6 *The Responsibilities of Individual Teachers and of Supervisors and Administrators Should Be Carefully Defined and Known to All* When each participant in the training process knows his duties, he can be held responsible for inadequate performance and also be recognized for outstanding achievement. Everybody's business is nobody's business.

7 *The Teaching Staff in Business Education Should Have a Fair Teaching Load* One of the handicaps of business education has been a tendency to impose too many classroom periods and too many different subjects upon the teacher. This has been especially true of the beginning teacher. Salaries should be adequate to encourage competent teachers to stay in business education rather than to shift to business practice.

Even worse has been the tendency to require business teachers to teach two subjects at one time. Other teachers are not asked to teach one class while supervising another through a glass partition. Why business teachers ever permitted this practice to develop is incompre-

hensible, and the sooner it is stopped, the better the instruction will be. Incidental teaching is just about as good as the name implies. It necessarily must tend to be superficial and is certainly unfair to both the students and teacher.

8 *What Business Education Does with Its Tools Is More Important than the Tools Themselves* The equipment, textbooks, and other classroom facilities are means to competent job training rather than ends in themselves. School evaluation is conceived of as being an objective process. Therefore, evaluators tend to emphasize the formal aspects of learning. Yet it is obvious that the best equipment can still be used in shoddy teaching and that, in many cases, exceedingly effective teaching is undertaken with meager equipment. In fact, sometimes the very meagerness of facilities stimulates both teacher and pupils to more effective work.

The effectiveness of a business training program should certainly not be measured by the quantity of equipment. To some extent, the manner in which learning takes place is important, simply because the result is not always objectively measurable and not always measurable at the time the evaluation takes place. But the fundamental criterion is still what the training program does for the pupil—the extent to which he obtains a better position than he otherwise would, the extent to which he can achieve job satisfaction in his position, and the extent to which the employer is satisfied with the service the school has given him.

9 *The Library Should Be More than a Mere Collection of Books* Business makes constant use of reading materials that go far beyond the level of the textbook. The same should hold true of the business education classroom. Pupils should learn how and where to use library materials, how to select and evaluate them. The library must increasingly be thought of as a service, something more than a mere depository of books. It must be a source for exhibits, charts, samples, and models. These should be well classified and be easily available for classroom use. An adequate film library with abundant provision for showing audio-visual aids should be either a phase of the library service or a separate service closely associated with the library.

10 *The Equipment and Room Space for Business Education Should Be Adequate* Such planning should take place before a new building

is erected and before existing schools are remodeled or enlarged. Provision should be made for change, otherwise the problem of adjusting equipment to formalized schoolrooms and to standardized teaching conditions is likely to handicap the program. Business is one of the key enterprises in the community, and business education should have a significant contribution to make to the efficiency of business. The head of the school system should, therefore, have thorough understanding of the nature and function of business education and should be sympathetic to its services. He cannot be expected to be technically versed in business education, but he should be competent to select a trained supervisor or director of business education to help him determine his policies and to carry them out for him.

11 *Junior Colleges, Post High School, and Specialized Vocational Schools Have a High Place in Job Training.* They have essentially the same obligation for giving specific job training as the high school, except that their training usually should be given more intensively and on a somewhat higher level.

Where small high schools cannot give an adequate initial job-training program for business, institutions on the post high school level are especially necessary. Except in larger cities, there is some need in any case for offerings of a specialized nature that can be presented best in a specialized vocational school.

12 *Evaluation Techniques Must Be Established.* These procedures should minimize formal factual learnings often measured just because they are easy to test and because they lend themselves to the establishment of tables and graphs. Human relation effectiveness should be measured as objectively as possible while recognizing that measurements in this area are not scientific and that they must be used with full awareness of the environment in which they were secured.

13 *Provision Must Be Made for Further Training.* This means that within a reasonable transportation area, there should be provision for improvement of job abilities and for retraining, not only for the initial worker but also for the adult worker. Such training may be offered in night school, in junior college, in extension classes, by itinerant teachers, or by other training provisions. The important things are that it should be made available in some form and that means of publicizing such training opportunities should be provided.

PROGRESS IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

The casual observer of developments in business education may be discouraged by the slow adaptation that takes place in education as a whole and in business education in particular. He may feel that business education is greatly outmoded. Nevertheless, a large number of positive signs indicate that business education is far from stagnant, and that considerable progress has been made in the past few years and will continue to be made in the years to come. Among these evidences of improvement in the services of business education are the following:

- 1 The offerings, student enrollment, teacher preparation, and other factors in the work of business education are improving. The improvements are not developing so fast as some of the more radically minded observers would like to have them develop. The apparently slow progress is not only to be expected but is also desirable, for only as better procedures are clearly recognized should present practices be discarded, even though they are not entirely satisfactory.

- 2 Considerable progress has been made in developing courses for training people for clerical and distributive occupations. During the past few years the growth has been slow and intermittent, primarily because of lack of funds and because of uncertainty as to the right method of procedure. However, the experimental stages of these developments are more or less over, and a rapid growth should now take place in these areas of job preparation.

- 3 There has been an encouraging emphasis upon the social aspects of business education. Teachers of business subjects are realizing that business education must contribute to our community life just as other institutions do, and that it cannot be isolated from other types of education.

- 4 The specific vocational program in the field of business education is being moved upward on the educational ladder as rapidly as worth while general vocational training can be organized in the lower grades of the secondary school and as funds are made available for the development of post high school education in the public-school systems.

- 5 The teachers and administrators in several types of schools with different origins—such as the private business school, the junior college, the high school of commerce, the full time vocational school, and

the specialized vocational school or institute—are beginning to agree on the general aspects of the job training to be given at the post high school level. It is probable that out of these different sources a differentiated, yet basically similarly organized, school institution for post high school training in business education will develop.

6 There is an increasing awareness of the need for improved on-the-job training in business. Such training has been very successful in the merchandising field, but it is still very unsatisfactory or nonexistent in clerical occupations. Office supervisors are trainers if they do their work well. While much more needs to be done in the field of clerical in-service training, there is at least evidence of an awareness of this need.

7 Work experience, of some type, is being recognized as important, not only by the business teacher but also by the general administrator.

8 Teachers of business subjects are better trained than they were a generation ago. The textbooks are markedly improved. The literature in the field of business education has vastly increased in quantity, and there are encouraging evidences of improvement in quality.

9 The collegiate schools of business have become more realistic in their offerings. They are beginning to recognize that abstract training for entrepreneurship and management is not in itself adequate job preparation.

10 There are many evidences of better co-operation between the private business schools and the public schools. The leaders in the private schools recognize that they must base their work on a sound, general, public school education, and the public-school teachers are becoming more and more willing to accredit the essentially fine contribution that the private business schools have made and are continuing to make.

11 There are evidences that associations of business teachers are becoming more aware of the need for articulation of their work in order to render specific teacher services and provide national leadership in the field of business education.

12 Teachers of business education are rapidly becoming aware of the need for setting up their objectives in terms of business standards. Formalistic, academic standards of words a minute, timed dictation, and quantity of exercises completed, while useful as learning standards, are being increasingly discarded as standards for job ability.

The means of measurement used by the businessman himself are being substituted for such formalistic standards.

REVIEW QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. List the curriculum principles given in this chapter with which you agree and tell why you agree with them
2. Suggest ten curriculum principles other than those given in this chapter. Justify them
3. Evaluate a business curriculum in terms of the principles suggested in this chapter and those suggested to you. Choose the curriculum of a school with which you are familiar
4. Compare the criteria presented in this chapter with the principles presented in the National Business Teachers Association, *Ninth Yearbook*
5. Do you think the twelve evidences of progress in business education given in this chapter are valid? Indicate some others. List some of the failures.

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